

CURRICULUM JOURNAL

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News Notes

Los Angeles Consolidates Elementary and Secondary Curriculum Departments. With the aim of better articulation of program planning from the kindergarten through the senior high school, the elementary and secondary curriculum sections of the Los Angeles City Schools have been combined and will function as one curriculum office under the direction of Mr. Wm. B. Brown, formerly Director of Secondary Curriculum. Assisting him, in charge of the elementary field, will be Mrs. Meta N. Footman, formerly principal of Dahlia Heights School. The secondary level assistant is Benjamin C. Winegar, who has been associated with the Curriculum Section heretofore. Mrs. Footman was formerly superintendent of the Madera County Schools and has been a principal in the Los Angeles system since 1936. Deputy Superintendent Arthur Gould anticipates that this plan of organization will make the whole program of education more continuous and will bring teachers of all grades to a closer understanding of the problems of levels other than those in which they are engaged.

ditions facing young people which call for improvement of the high school program; (2) community and state needs which schools should meet more efficiently; and (3) steps which schools should take to meet these conditions and needs.

The committee recommended that studies be made of practical guidance procedures, of instructional materials essential to all students, that attention be given to methods of vocational training for those who will not go to college, to the problem of the school cooperating with other organizations in studying the gap between the time of graduation and the time of permanent employment, and to the possibilities of correspondence courses as a means of enriching the present program of the high school.

They further recommended the utilization to the fullest extent of all research and factual studies already made or being made that have a bearing on the problems raised, and the early appointment of working committees to prepare instructional materials as samples or types of materials that schools might use in building up study units of their own.

The High School Improvement Program in Nebraska. A subcommittee of the High School Improvement Program in Nebraska, charged with defining its limits, recommended that a study be made in terms of: (1) con-

The Role of the Teacher in Curriculum Building. Sacramento Senior High School has followed a policy of widespread teacher participation in the construction of courses of study. Such a policy has been based upon the fol-

lowing beliefs: 1. No matter what the *written* curriculum may say, it is the teacher who determines the *living* curriculum; namely, what is actually said, thought, and done under the school-house roof. Therefore, those who direct the course of study in the classroom should be responsible for aiding in its planning and preparation. 2. The best way to meet the needs of a particular school situation is for those faced with the problem to search cooperatively for a solution. 3. Better teaching of a particular course will result if there is collective thinking around the aims and content of that course. 4. Group participation in course of study construction is a stimulus to general professional growth. 5. The best way to promote democracy in school organization is to practice it. In brief, the teacher is seen as the foundation upon which any effective reconstruction of the curriculum inevitably must rest. Thus instead of imposing the course of study program from some authoritarian source, the effort is made to cause the program to originate and develop from within the school. This procedure serves not only to make teachers and administrators aware of their common school problems, but also to awaken them to their mutual responsibilities for the achievement of the school's objectives.

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erating and assisting in the planning of this workshop.

Meetings of the Workshop will be from June 17 to July 19 and it will be housed in Denver's beautiful South High School and in fraternity houses of the University. Plans are being made for the participation of elementary, as well as junior high school and senior high school, teachers and administrators. A demonstration center—including children of grades four, five, and six—will be conducted at South High School in connection with the Workshop. It will be under the direction of Mrs. Elsie Adams, supervising teacher of the University Park School in Denver.

Mr. Guy Fox, Assistant Director of Instruction and Research, of the Denver Public Schools, will be the workshop director. Other members of the staff will include Dr. Louis Heil, member of the staff of the Cooperative College Study of General Education; Dr. Cecil Parker, curriculum specialist and Director of the Michigan Study; Dr. Wilhelmina Hill, specialist in elementary education and curriculum, of the University of Denver; Miss Helen Allphin, supervisor of intermediate grades in Denver Public Schools; Miss Polosa Cooke, Des Moines Public Schools; Miss M. L. Biddick, Coordinator of General Education in Denver; Miss Alice H. Aronson, teacher of English and core at Denver's South High School; Miss Agnes V. Clancy, teacher of social studies and core at South High School; Miss Edith M. Henry, teacher of fine arts and core at East High School; Mr. Chandos Reid, teacher of English and core at East High School; Mr. Clark H. Stone, principal of Grant Junior High School in Denver; and Mr. Harold

Summer Workshop in Denver. The third Summer Workshop to be held in Denver will be a cooperative enterprise of the University of Denver and the Denver Public Schools. The Progressive Education Association's Committee on Workshops and the Teacher Education Commission of the American Council on Education are coop-

Threlkeld, Assistant in Student Personnel at the University of Denver.

A Summer Workshop for Greenville County Teachers. The Furman Summer School, through the sponsorship and support of the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education and the school systems of Greenville, Parker, and Greenville County, announces that a workshop for teachers of Greenville County will be set up on the Furman campus this summer. Work groups of some ten or twelve members each will consider such topics as the following: ways to use the educational resources of the community, a modern philosophy of education, how to combine English and social studies in a high school program, newer techniques in evaluation, guidance, the core curriculum, child growth and development, a practical science course for high schools, teaching high school students to read, arts and crafts, and problems of youth. The weekly program of the workshop will be planned by the staff and student representatives who will be elected by the group. No meeting will be scheduled unless the students indicate a need for it. The entire program of the workshop will be an attempt at democratic living and learning. The workshop will not advocate any particular method or plan of teaching. Such a procedure is consistent with the democratic philosophy under which workshops operate. However, leaders will be eager to help any group develop plans that make for a richer learning experience in the lives of both teachers and students.

What the Junior College Needs to Do.
Addressing the twentieth anniversary

dinner of the American Association of Junior Colleges, Dr. George F. Zook made the following specific suggestions as to what the junior colleges need to do:

1. Junior colleges should conceive of their field of effort as including the educational needs of the entire youth population, particularly those eighteen and nineteen years of age. Once such a philosophy is accepted the present traditional curriculum leading on to the completion of an A.B. degree will become only a small part of the total program—though a very important one. Alongside it and far exceeding it in numbers will be terminal curricula in various vocations, including homemaking, and in general education as a preparation for social life and the realization of one's own peculiar interests and abilities.

2. Such junior colleges supported from public funds should be integrally connected with the secondary school system so as to represent a natural extension of secondary education.

3. Cooperative programs of part-time education and part-time work should be extensively organized with local industries and commercial establishments on the one hand, and with public agencies, including the National Youth Administration, on the other.

4. Each state should provide for a system of junior colleges, each of which would be attached to a local cosmopolitan high school. Such a system should be supported in part by the state, in part by the local school district, in part by tuitions for nonresident students paid by the student's home district and in part by student fees.

5. Junior colleges, whether publicly or privately controlled, should become

cultural leaders on a broad front in the communities in which they are located. The junior college should, for example, offer facilities for the development of musical talent and arrange for musical concerts. It should assist in bringing provocative speakers to the city. It should organize a program of classes, public forums, and discussion groups for adults in the afternoon and evening. It should stimulate the formation of clubs for the study of literature and art. It should assist in making wholesome recreation facilities available.

Teachers College Students Help Develop a Toy Loan Center. The Indiana State Teachers College at Terre Haute, as are most others today, is committed to the policy of developing in its program an appreciation and obligation of community service by teachers. With other departments, the elementary division has investigated community resources and needs. The studies show recreation for children and young people to be a major problem in this community.

As one means of improving the situation, women of Terre Haute representing three organizations—American Association of University Women, Altrusa Club, and the League of Terre Haute—have sponsored and developed a Toy Loan Center, which is housed in the headquarters of the Family Welfare Society. As the project has developed, other organizations and many individuals have given generous aid.

From its inception, students have participated in developing the policies and activities of the Center. They have sat in on committee meetings, have studied the problem of selecting play equipment, attempting to select

it in the light of child and family needs, as well as from the standpoint of sturdiness and ability to stand sterilizing. They, as members of the community, have donated toys.

In preparing for the Open House, to which all interested citizens were invited, the students helped with arrangements. During the Open House they explained the plan of the Center to the guests. Since the children have begun to borrow toys, they are helping with that phase of the work. They demonstrate games and toys and in many ways help to guide children in choosing their playthings. They also assist in the keeping of records. The project of the Toy Loan seems to have many possibilities for educating teachers to an understanding of the problem and of practical possibilities for meeting it.

American Council Studies Need for Instructors of Rural Social Subjects. The American Council on Education has announced an exploratory study to search out new competent personnel to replace scholars qualified to teach rural social subjects that the Federal agencies have drained from universities and colleges. The study is in charge of a special committee headed by Dr. E. G. Nourse, Director of the Institute of Economics of the Brookings Institution, and has as its immediate purpose planning ways to bring relief particularly to schools in the South, where the situation is described as critical. Professor T. W. Schultz of Iowa State College at Ames has been appointed Director of the Study. The extraordinary increase in Federal action programs serving agriculture, such as the AAA, FSA, SCS, REA, to list only a few, together

with the expanded activity of the Bureau of Agricultural Economics and similar Federal and state research agencies, has created a demand for trained personnel that exceeds the supply. The problem calls for a consideration of methods of overcoming the present lack of recognition of the importance of rural social studies, and of acquainting students with the opportunities open to specialists in the field.

Education and Economic Well-Being. The most recent report of the Educational Policies Commission is a volume entitled *Education and Economic Well-Being in American Democracy*, written for the Commission by John K. Norton. In order to raise American standard of living the Commission recommends: 1. Expansion of American school system to provide compulsory school attendance for at least ten years for every American child. Increasing the average number of years of free schooling for American youth to fourteen. 2. Expansion of well-planned vocational education to the point where boys and girls leave school ready to enter productive jobs. 3. Provision of free college or university training for every child of superior ability who wants to go on with his education, even though he and his family are unable to finance the advanced schooling.

It is highly desirable, the Commission report said, to keep occupational surveys up to date, in order that training facilities for callings already over-supplied or conspicuously low paid would not be developed. Turning to the matter of costs of effecting the proposals made in the report, the Commission estimates that they might, in

the long run, amount to \$4,000,000,-000. This total includes most of the present educational costs. Some of this money would go for the food, shelter, clothing and transportation needed to make education really free for worthy students. The report contains an analysis of consumer education in relation to our economic welfare; a section devoted to the kind of general and occupational education required for economic efficiency; and deals in some detail with adult education and re-training to meet changing conditions of our mechanized, industrialized, dynamic economy.

Housing Study Guide for Teachers. The National Council for the Social Studies announces as its May bulletin a housing study guide for teachers. In addition to a survey of facts and implications of the housing problem, it will contain practical suggestions for teachers regarding ways of organizing housing courses, or housing material within existing courses. The bulletin will suggest activities, both in the classroom and in the local communities, through which students not only can gain an insight into housing and related problems (such as regional resources and community planning), but can take part in helping solve some of these problems in their own communities.

This housing study guide, though intended for use chiefly by teachers in Junior and Senior High School, will contain material of practical usefulness for adult study groups and for individuals outside of school. Emphasis is placed on housing not as an additional subject, but as an *integrating subject*, through which a great variety of facts and experiences may be brought to-

gether into a meaningful pattern, giving scope to a variety of special interests of both boys and girls.

Mr. James A. Michener, as Chairman of the National Council's Publications Committee, has general supervision of the Council's bulletin. The special editor for this housing number is Mr. John H. Haefner, Instructor in Social Studies at the University High School, Iowa City, who is working with the cooperation of members of the staff of the United States Housing Authority.

The bulletin will be sent free to all members of the National Council for the Social Studies. Non-members may obtain copies at fifty cents each from the National Council for the Social Studies, 13 Lawrence Hall, Kirkland Street, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

Teacher's Guide to Study of Housing. The "Housing Study Course—1940" is the fourth revision of the standard outline first published in 1934 under the auspices of the Housing Section of the Welfare Council of New York City. It brings the material of earlier editions up to date in respect to bibliography and legal provisions governing housing; in particular the contents have been re-planned to reflect the most recent thinking on the subject. It is essentially a teacher's guide to the study of the housing problem in the United States for use in colleges, secondary schools, and study groups. The present edition, besides being up to date, is more compact than its predecessors, although suggestions for practical application to classroom use have been greatly amplified in the light of recent experience in the teaching of housing. It may be secured for fifty cents by writ-

ing to the Welfare Council, 44 East Twenty-Third Street, New York City.

Summer Workshop at Mills College. During the coming summer, Mills College will conduct a Workshop on *The Arts in Education* sponsored by the Progressive Education Association. Frederick Redefer will be the director. Jane Betsey Welling, supervisor of art, Detroit Public Schools, and associate professor of art education, Wayne University, has already been named to the staff, other members of which will be announced later. The Workshop staff will carry forward an integrated study on *The Arts in Education* with the possible formulation of a report on this subject. Members of the Mills College summer session staff in guidance and psychiatry, child development, art, dance, music, group work, and physical education will act as resource advisers.

The other Workshop at Mills will be entitled *Neuropsychiatry for Educators*. It is an outgrowth of the 1939 Workshop, during which Dr. Douglas Gordon Campbell, Dr. Lawrence K. Frank, and President Constance Warren presented the psychiatric, sociological, and educational aspects of the topic, women's place in the present-day world. The 1939 Workshop requested that Dr. Campbell be invited to organize a six weeks' session in 1940 for the presentation of his point of view. This was done and the Workshop staff now includes Dr. Campbell, who will give the seminar; Dean Elsie May Smithies, vice-principal, University of Chicago High School, who will present "Case Studies of Normal Adolescent Girls"; Dean Esther Dayman, dean of undergrad-

uates, Mills College, "Trends in Guidance in the College"; and Donald McLean, author and psychiatrist, "Counseling in Personal Problems." The staff of consultants will include Dr. Lydia Giberson, psychiatrist for the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company in New York; Dr. Will Rebec, psychiatrist, Belmont, California; Dr. George Stevenson, Director, National Committee for Mental Hygiene; William Lloyd Warner, associate professor of anthropology and sociology, University of Chicago; and Dr. May Woods Bennett, Dr. Rosalind Cassidy, and Dr. Eleanor Nelson of the Mills College faculty.

Regional Conference on Consumer Education at Peabody College. A regional conference on consumer education will be held on the campus of George Peabody College for Teachers on Friday and Saturday, May 17 and 18, 1940. The major themes include a consideration of basic questions in consumer education and current practice in consumer education.

There will be two general sessions which will include addresses by John Cassels, Institute for Consumer Education, Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri; J. J. Oppenheimer, University of Louisville, Louisville, Kentucky; James E. Mendenhall, Institute for Consumer Education, Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri; Gordon McCloskey, Alabama College, Montevallo; Leland Gordon, Denison University, Granville, Ohio; and Ray G. Price, University of Cincinnati. The dinner meeting will be addressed by Donald Montgomery, Consumers' Counsel Division, Agricultural Ad-

justment Administration, Washington, D. C.

On the afternoon of Friday, May 17, the conference will divide itself into seven discussion groups. The topics and discussion leaders of these groups are as follows: Elementary Education, Reign Hadsell, Consumers' Counsel Division, Agricultural Adjustment Administration, Washington, D. C.; Rural Schools, Irwin A. Hammer, State Teachers College, Troy, Alabama; Science and Mathematics, H. H. Floyd, State Teachers College, Florence, Alabama; Social Studies and Home Economics, Rufie Williams, Institute for Consumer Education, Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri; Business Education, Benjamin R. Haynes, University of Tennessee, Knoxville; College Economics, W. L. Taudy, Eureka College, Eureka, Illinois; and Adult Groups, Elizabeth L. Speer, University of Tennessee, Knoxville. The members of the panels will include outstanding leaders in their respective fields of consumer education.

Conference on Supervision of Elementary Schools. The Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association, and the School of Education, University of California, are cooperating in conducting a conference to be held in Berkeley, California, July 13-26. The theme is "Meeting the Problems of the Modern Elementary School Through Supervision." The instructional staff includes: George C. Kyte, Julia Hahn, Helen Heffernan, and John A. Hockett. The program includes directed observation of demonstration school; study and discussion sections; and general assemblies. The demonstration

school will include a staff of carefully selected elementary school teachers familiar with a modern school program. The study sessions will be devoted to critical evaluation of classrooms observed. Selected specialists will address the general assemblies.

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sity of Oregon; August Dvorak, University of Washington; Burton K. Farnsworth, Utah State Department of Education; Hugh Wood, University of Oregon; and Robert McConnell, President, Central Washington College of Education. The program was arranged by Carl E. Aschenbrenner of Lewiston, Idaho, who is chairman of the Society.

Conference on Elementary Education. The Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association will hold its Fourth Annual Conference on Elementary Education at the University of Wisconsin, July 6-19, 1940. Besides instructors from the regular staff members of the School of Education, University of Wisconsin, such well-known educators have been invited as William S. Gray, William H. Kilpatrick, Willard E. Givens, Kate Wofford, Prudence Cutright, Paul J. Misner, Edwin H. Reeder, and others. Application blanks and additional information may be secured from the Department of Elementary School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. Washington, D. C.

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Subject Index to Books for Intermediate Grades. The American Library Association has just published an index to books for intermediate grades, by Eloise Rue. The book was prepared after a study of learning units actually taught in schools. It indexes about 12,000 carefully chosen books (both trade and text) under about 3,000 topics commonly found in the curriculum of intermediate grades. For each entry the grade and the nature of the material is given. The books of superior quality are also indicated.

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Elementary Textbook List. The Curriculum Laboratory of the State Normal School at Oswego, New York, recently issued a mimeographed bulletin containing a list of elementary school textbooks classified according to subject matter fields. The entries were secured directly from the publishers, and where the books were available in the laboratory, they were checked against the publisher's lists. Textbook catalogs were also used when information sent by the publishers was incomplete.

Inland Empire Curriculum Society. The Inland Empire Curriculum Society held a three-day meeting at Spokane on April 2, 3, and 4. The theme of the meeting was evaluation. The participants included Edgar M. Draper, University of Washington; R. D. Russell, University of Idaho; Paul R. Grim, Western Washington College of Education; F. G. Macomber, Univer-

SCHOOL-COMMUNITY COOPERATION AND THE TEACHER

By JOHN B. WHITELAW

State Normal School, Brockport, New York

THE PROGRESS of thinking and practice in the field of school-community organization appears to be the outstanding educational development of the past five years. Continued advance now depends primarily upon interpretation. Under the sustained forcing of social confusion, the embryonic ideas and anticipations of 1935 have come to surprisingly rapid realization. From the nursery school through the junior college, school-community cooperation, which five years ago was in a state of modest haziness, is now the focus for the genuine interest of practical schoolmen.

The teacher in the average classroom is, of course, the key factor contributing to the success of school-community cooperation. The major problem in this field today is that of interpreting the principles and procedures of school-community planning in terms that are meaningful and acceptable to the teacher in the average school. In fact, it would seem that this is where there is an even chance of spanning the gap between democracy as a social ideal and democracy as economic reality.

BASIC ASSUMPTIONS

Three basic assumptions that require interpretation provide the core of the philosophy of school-community organization. The first assumption concerns the definition of the function of the school in the community. *The function of the school is to raise appreciably the standard of living in its community.* This assumption forms the basis for curriculum organization,

for the administrative policy of the school, for the development of school-home relations. It means that the curriculum in each school will be adapted to the particular needs of its community, and that from the beginning of the elementary school to the end of the educational ladder a direct attempt will be made to attain desirable standards for community life.

The second assumption concerns the individual pupil. *The fundamental objective of the school is to guide each individual into the type of lifework in which he shows the greatest promise of happy adjustment and success.* The well-adjusted individual is one whose interests and abilities tend to coincide. The school exists to achieve for each individual such a development of his interests and training of his abilities that there will be a maximum opportunity for this coincidence of interest and ability to be realized. Satisfying lifework we accept as a foundation adjustment for effective living. Placement in work is accepted as the normal terminal function of schooling.

The third assumption concerns the teacher's attitude toward his own work. If the foregoing assumptions are accepted, and if we understand realistically what is involved in the education of the whole child, we see that *education is the most comprehensive form of social work.* Those attributes that are considered to be of greatest importance in a trained social worker are now recognized as the most important qualities in a teacher. Training for teaching and training for social

work are, it is encouraging to note, tending to show an increasing degree of similarity.

BASIC FACTS REQUIRED

There are three main jobs of fact gathering to be done. They lead respectively to: 1. understanding the community; 2. understanding the school; 3. understanding individual pupils.

It is well to note here certain recurrent stumbling blocks in this type of fact finding. The mistake most common in making community studies is to attempt to cover more than the members of the school staff can do with interest and reasonable effort—for what is most needed is enthusiasm in the undertaking. The mistake most common in making a self-survey of the school is in getting bogged down in the minutiae of the curriculum, when this should be conceived of as a continuous, never-ending piece of work. The mistake most common in making provisions for understanding the individual is to frustrate the teacher at the outset by an array of check items and record forms, when a very good beginning can be made with Manila filing folders and plain paper.

Interpretation, as it is applied to these fact-gathering procedures, is concerned primarily with convincing teachers of the worthwhileness of the undertaking, and with making procedures so simple and clear that the value of the effort will be manifest.

In all aspects of school-community organization it must not be forgotten that while the facts gathered and arrayed are important, the really significant aspect of the whole matter is the growth that takes place on the part of each teacher. The following

are brief outlines of the facts that have appeared to be significant in a community studied.

Facts about the community. The following are the items of information that are useful and necessary for a satisfactory estimate of the community by the school personnel. They would, of course, be collected through a division of labor among the members of the staff, and in many instances would be secured through the assistance of the school children in or out of school hours.

The school community is defined as the area in which are the homes of the children who attend the school. The concentric circles spreading out from the school as a center take in a community area that will depend upon the particular relationship between the school and community.

The following ten categories provide the basic framework for significant information about the community:

1. Evolution of the community, and its present ecology: a history of the development of the community, and a description of the present environment.
2. Population: nationalities; age distributions; mobility.
3. Economic security: occupations; employment situation.
4. Housing: types; economic status of tenure.
5. The family: family size; income; adjustment.
6. Health: density of population; infant mortality; incidence of disease.
7. Social adjustment: relation of social agencies to this community; delinquency; crime.
8. Leisure: facilities; leisure time activities of members of the community.

9. Religion: religious activities and the extent to which organized religion is supported in the community.

10. Education: schools in the community; other agencies primarily for education.

Self-survey of the school. General conditions in the community are usually reflected in the school itself. It is revealing, however, to members of the staff to see the school as a whole and thereby to have a valid appreciation of needs and the broad steps in planning required to meet these needs. As in the previous outline, the following twenty items are those that have appeared from experience to be useful and significant:

1. The school plant.

2. The teaching staff: years of teaching experience; years in this school; professional training; salary schedule.

3. Population of the school for the last ten years: trends in enrollment; trends in nationality distribution.

4. Pupil-teacher ratio: trends; comparison with other schools.

5. Median I. Q. or E. Q. for this school compared to others.

6. Attendance: average daily attendance trends and comparison with other schools.

7. Basis for pupil promotion; classification procedures.

8. Health in the school: provisions for hygienic care and supervision; prevalent causes of ill-health.

9. Physical and health education program throughout the school.

10. Work in the classroom: case studies of classroom activities; samples of schedules and units of work.

11. Extracurricular activities in the school.

12. Socialization of the educative process within the school; pupil participation in running the school; use of community resources.

13. Provisions for educational and vocational guidance.

14. The probable educational and vocational futures of the pupils. (This depends upon follow-up studies over a relatively long period of time. One of the most needed types of educational research.)

15. Provisions for home-school relations.

16. The work of special school-community contact workers, such as visiting teachers.

17. The extent of maladjustment evident among the children in this school: mental deficiency; mental and emotional maladjustment; physiological handicaps; truancy; delinquency.

18. Agencies actively cooperating with this school.

19. The outstanding problems of this school as seen by the principal.

20. The outstanding problems of this school as seen by the superintendent of the school system.

Case studies of a sampling of the children. Case studies humanize information and make it meaningful for those who wish to apply it; they give us vital pictures of total situations.

If a valid sampling of the school enrollment is taken, case studies of these pupils will provide the stimulus for action in a way that statistically arrayed facts never can.

Information for the case studies may be derived from six sources: the student's schoolwork record in the office; the student's health record card in the office; a visit to the child's home; opinions secured from the child's teacher, apart from notations on the

regular cumulative record; an interview with the child; the local social work clearinghouse. Information secured from these six sources will give a living description of the pupil as he is a representative sampling of pupils in the school. The following topical headings are suggested for the organization of the case study:

1. Home background: nationality background; type of dwelling; size of family; occupations; leisure time interests of the family; religious interests; health of members of the family; sleeping accommodations; sanitary facilities; yard; mobility of family during past two years; last two residences of family; relations between home and the school; parents' plans for their child; promotion of education in the home.

2. Health: extent to which this child deviates from normal; recommendations that have been made; follow-up corrections made or in progress.

3. Schoolwork: appraisal of child's intelligence; estimate of scholastic performance in different fields in terms of average, above or below average; summary of teacher's supplementary estimates which include estimates of child's intelligence, physical health,

mental health, social adjustment, character, outstanding abilities, outstanding disabilities.

4. Interview with pupil: in which the child's interests and abilities are explored; ambitions regarding school and work; out-of-school interests and activities.

5. Contacts of family with social agencies: a listing of the social agencies, with account of extent and nature of family's contacts under each agency.

CONCLUSION

The foregoing has been an attempt to present the essential elements in the first steps toward school-community organization in an average school situation. The final and most important step is in deciding upon a long-term program of action. This tends to develop in the process of thinking through the basic assumptions and comprehending the basic facts.

Each school must embark upon its own program in terms of its own particular situation. And it should be kept well in mind that the principal use of such an initial approach, as outlined above, will not be in the facts it may produce, but rather in the quality of thinking it engenders.



THE CONCEPT OF NEED AND THE CURRICULUM

By J. S. KOUNIN
College of Education, University of Illinois

SINCE CURRENT curriculum theory and practice utilizes the concept of need in promoting more effective experiences, it is necessary to examine what is meant by the term in such usage. There have been at least three different uses of the concept of need in education. The three meanings of the term may be summarized as: (1) What is *good* for the child. (2) What the child *ought to do*. (3) What the child *wants*. The first type of need deals with such factors as a child's need for glasses, for beneficial food, for certain experiences, etc. The adult knows that these things are "good for" the child. Included under the second meaning of need are a child's need for socially accepted manners, for use of correct English, and similarly adult-defined requirements. The child may experience no desire for such activities, may not even agree with their advisability. However, because he "knows better," the adult decides that the child "needs" certain information, skills, and attitudes in order to adjust to society. This concept of need is characteristic of the parent who says that his child "needs a good spanking." Psychologists and educators have more adequate bases upon which to advocate certain activities which the child ought to do. The conceptual analysis of the meaning of "need," however, is no different from that of the disciplinary parent.

From the psychological point of view the concept of need as what the child *wants* offers greatest motivational possibilities. How this meaning of need has been experimentally

studied, especially by Lewin¹ and his students, may be illustrated as follows: An individual is presented with a series of tasks of a relatively simple nature, each requiring a few minutes for completion. Half of these tasks are interrupted and half of them are completed. When the subject is asked to recall the tasks he did, it is found that the interrupted activities are recalled with greater frequency than are the completed tasks. Other experiments indicate that individuals resume tasks which have been interrupted more frequently than they resume activities which have been completed. These phenomena have been explained by postulating a tension in the individual corresponding to a need. This tension is characterized by a tendency toward resolution, resulting in satisfaction of need. Should an activity for which a goal of completion has been created be completed, and the need satisfied, the coexisting tension is resolved. When, however, the activity is interrupted, the need and coexisting tension remains. Two indices of this unresolved tension are: (a) higher frequency of recall of uncompleted activities, (b) greater tendency toward resumption of uncompleted activities.

A need, then, is a state of tension in the person. There are different dimensions of such tensions. Tensions may be temporary or relatively permanent, specific or diffuse, peripheral and unimportant to the individual, or central and important. There is a rela-

¹Lewin, K. A. *Dynamic Theory of Personality: Selected Papers*. Trans. by Donald K. Adams and Karl E. Zener. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1935. pp. ix + 286.

tively low degree of emotional involvement with peripheral tensions. They are comparatively "public"—*i. e.*, the individual will express such needs to others. Thus, a high-school student will readily express a desire for a car, for a high-school diploma, for a book, etc. The majority of studies of the interests of adolescents have dealt with such relatively peripheral needs.

Other tensions or needs are more central to the individual, in the sense of being more highly emotionally involved. These needs are more important to the individual; they have more influence upon his behavior; and extend into more areas of his living. They are more "private"—*i. e.*, the individual is less inclined to express such needs to others. Tensions relating to the needs for security, for affection, attainment of selfhood, belonging to a group, fall into this category. These are usually referred to as the general personality-emotional needs of individuals. Even more central tensions have been postulated by the psychoanalysts, who speak of the unconscious needs—those which are so private and central that the individual may not admit their existence to himself. It is not necessary to postulate an unconscious mind to explain these tensions. They might be more aptly described as those tensions of which the individual himself is incompletely unaware—that is, that he does not realize the extent to which such needs actually influence his behavior.

By the time students enter secondary school considerable differentiation of needs has developed. There is also a great variation with respect to the relative peripherality and centrality of these needs. What is an important

need for one individual may be relatively unimportant for another. The greatest amount of variability is found in the content of the peripheral needs and interests of adolescents. Among the central needs, however, there is more universality. That is, in dealing with the most basic personality needs one finds similar tensions among widely different individuals.

For the secondary school curriculum builder, this concept of needs gives rise to two categories of problems: (1) those related to the satisfaction and meeting of needs, and (2) those related to the creation of needs. That is, how can a teacher create tensions to do certain things? Is it possible to revise the curriculum so that those activities which society and educators regard as important for the pupil to accomplish (the "ought to do" concept of need) can be related to what the pupil wants (the tension concept of need)?

The satisfaction of needs has immediate implications of a mental health nature. The mental hygiene problem of resolving and controlling emotional tensions, important as it is in itself, is not to be disregarded even in the matter of creating needs related to school activities. Experimental evidence indicates that the existence of diffuse tension resulting from the lack of satisfaction and definition of personality needs prevents the creation of a specific tension necessary to directly motivate an activity. The first step in the creation of needs for school activities involves preparing the individual for the creation of a specific tension either by eliminating or restricting the effects of diffuse emotional tensions not directly related to the need. For example, the pupil who

has not satisfied his need to belong to the school group and to be accepted by his classmates is not as likely to have as strong a tension in the direction of undertaking school activities as is the pupil whose need to belong to the group is satisfied.

One principle of creating needs is to base curricular experiences upon the already existing interests of adolescents. As has been noted, those interests revealed by questionnaire techniques and interviews are the more "public" and peripheral tensions of the person. As such, these tensions are easily discharged and possess less importance and permanency as motivating forces. To be effective, these tensions should be made more central to the person, less easily dischargeable, and therefore more permanent as motivating factors in school activities.

The technique of teaching science employed by Goodson² of the University of Illinois High School is an excellent example of a method of making peripheral interests more central. Peripheral tensions were created or aroused by means of visual aids, reading material, and excursions into the environment, stimulating pupils to raise questions about the experiences. In the usual teaching procedure, the teacher would answer the questions, resolving the tension, satisfying the peripheral need, and removing the motivating force. By not giving direct answers to the questions, Goodson sustains the tension and by requiring the pupil to transform his question into a problem which requires solution, he makes the tension stronger and more central thus increasing its permanency as a motivating force. It becomes a

pupil's problem; that is, he becomes more personally involved in finding a solution. This constructs a situation of thinking in a purposeful context, and is further utilized to develop improvement in thinking. With adaptations to the particular situation, such techniques of creating and centralizing tensions can be applied to other subjects in the curriculum as well.

A related method of creating needs is to embed activities in already existing more central needs. Because in adolescence there exists a high degree of differentiation of needs and of variations in their centrality and peripherality, it is probably impossible to design a curriculum which will meet the needs of all adolescents in dissimilar environments. It is feasible, however, to derive certain generalized tensions from the psychological situation of the majority of adolescents in our culture. Because our culture has not precisely delineated the transition from childhood to adulthood there is a lack of clear definition of adolescents' status in society, since in some respects they are regarded as children, whereas in other areas they are treated as adults. This situation produces tensions relating to the attaining of independence which conflicts with the fact that adolescents are dependent upon their parents. Tensions related to defining their future status—*i. e.*, vocation, and those related to home and parents, also frequently result.

Assuming such central tensions to exist among the majority of adolescents, one might proceed to develop curricular experiences which would direct these tensions by indicating possible goals which would satisfy such needs. Further, needs for certain school activities may be created by

²Goodson, Max R. "The Improvement of Pupil Thinking," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, November, 1939, 615-24.

embedding such activities in these already existing need systems, thus directing tensions already available into proper activity channels.

Home tensions may be utilized for school content activities by developing subject areas which will help the adolescent to clarify and define his home tensions. Instead of being based upon types of literature, literature courses may be based upon readings which deal with home situations of adolescents. In the first place the embedding of subject materials in already existing needs may be expected to create specific needs and thus intensify direct motivation for the school subjects. In the second place, by defining and structuring the home situation for the adolescent such a procedure would tend to restrict the diffusion toward a significant resolution of home tensions by indicating methods of dealing constructively with family attitudes and affairs. (An indirect method—*i. e.*, reading about family situations, discussing family problems of other hypothetical individuals, might be warranted in the teacher's dealing with such tensions. These tensions are usually emotionally tinged, and are "private" to the individual. As such, the adolescent is likely to be very sensitive to any public and classroom airing of his problems.)

Vocational courses and guidance work are being employed by many secondary schools. It might be pointed out that the presence of a vocational need can be utilized considerably more in other phases of the curriculum

also. Many subjects now advocated as "content" material could be related to these vocational tensions. In social studies, for example, communities, social forces, etc., can be incorporated into the experience of the adolescent by embedding them in the already existing vocational tension. Instead of approaching social studies units from the viewpoint of knowledges, informations, sociological-political-economic abstractions, one could cover the same content by starting with the needs of the pupils. These needs give rise to such questions or problems as "What can I find out about social, political, economic factors which would assist me in planning a future and finding a place for myself in this society?" Subjects not even "logically" related to vocational affairs might create pupil needs by utilizing this vocational tension. Some teachers have based various units on this principle of utilizing existent tensions by such procedures as having pupils interview authorities about certain vocations and reporting these interviews, orally or written, to others. This places a unit in a context of purposeful activity based directly on the needs of adolescents.

It is obvious that much effective teaching has employed the principles herein discussed. In presenting a systematic approach to concept of need as a motivating force, the hope has been that a direction has been indicated for present and future research in related curriculum problems.

FUNCTIONAL SCIENCE FOR GRADE ELEVEN

By EDWARD L. LONG
Yonkers High School, Yonkers, New York

THE COURSE for eleventh grade science described here was designed to provide material suited to the needs of those pupils who do not plan to go to college. No attempt is made to cover all of the items in the following outline. It is not intended as a syllabus, but is offered to serve as material from which problem situations may be drawn.

Unit I. Keeping the Home Warm and Comfortable. This unit includes a study of the methods of home heating in use in the homes occupied by the pupils of the class and a comparison of these methods with those of earlier days. The methods of transferring heat by conduction, convection, and radiation with reference to their practical applications to heating systems are considered. The effect of home heating on the humidity of the air and a consideration of humidity with respect to health and comfort is also studied. The problem then of what can be done to condition air leads naturally to a study of the methods and devices used in the home for this purpose. The larger installations, such as used for stores and theatres, can be considered by some of the pupils who have ability and interest to do so.

A study of the origin or manufacture of fuels and their methods of use, of the apparatus for automatic control of fuel-burning devices, of systems for hot water supply, and of methods of insulating homes are subjects also included.

Unit II. Machines in the Home. This is introduced by a study of the

vacuum cleaner. A machine from a home is brought into class and the question asked: "Will this vacuum work better if it is cleaned and oiled?" The first condition of the machine is determined by removing the bag and in its place putting a plate with an opening connected to a water manometer, and the machine is then taken apart, cleaned, oiled, put back together, and again tested. During the servicing, the construction and theory of the vacuum cleaner is studied. Atmospheric pressure and methods of measuring it, together with some elementary considerations with respect to electrical circuits, also enter here.

The pupils then list the other labor-saving devices or machines in their homes, from egg beaters to delivery elevators. One group has made a five-foot working model of the dumb-waiter to illustrate the mechanical principles involved. The principle of work and the concept of efficiency are involved here.

Unit III. Measuring What We Buy. This unit considers some of the simple methods of measuring consumer goods. Samples of household ammonia are brought in and titrated to illustrate the methods of comparing values. The meters for water, gas, and electricity are considered: how each works, how to read each, how to compute costs from readings, etc. The adjustment of gas and oil burners and a consideration of the methods of measuring fuel values provide further material for study.

Unit IV. Dangers and Cautions. This problem is introduced by the

question of how soon can one stop an automobile. A committee of two boys constructed a model of an automobile footboard with brake pedal and accelerator. One of the girls provided a small beanbag. By dropping this bag from different heights and having the pupils try to intercept it before it strikes the brake pedal it is possible to measure the time of reaction of each pupil and learn how long it takes him to move his foot from the accelerator to the brake pedal. Each pupil then, using different driving speeds, figures out how far his car would go before it begins to stop.

The mechanics of braking systems is then studied. This permits a review, or in some cases an introduction to, the principles of simple machines and hydraulics. The total times needed to stop a car using representative driving speeds and the distances it travels in these times are found. Figures given by auto and brake band manufacturers are used. This experience is a startling revelation to many and emphasizes the need for greater driving care.

A consideration of accidents caused by leaving toys on stairs, knowledge needed for proper care and operation of gas ranges and electrical equipment and other phases of safety are also studied. Larger problems of safety in auto traffic control, railroad and industrial problems are introduced, and interested groups are encouraged to investigate and show how the applications of scientific principles of study reduce accidents in these fields.

The dangers of carbon monoxide, the proper storage of matches, the protection purposes of electrical fuses, the prevention of fire, and the methods of fire fighting are also studied.

Unit V. Building, Upkeep, and Repair. An attempt is made here to provide instruction in those duties which owners are required to perform in the ordinary business of operating a home. The construction of water faucets is studied with the purpose of learning how to change the washers. The location and use of valves in the water system, the gas line, and fuses in the electrical circuits are considered. The mixing and use of cement and plaster of Paris etc., for patching; the kinds and uses of various paints, enamels, and varnishes are subjects which are included.

This unit leads to a study of house design and the relative merits of common building materials, their source, method of manufacture, and characteristics.

Unit VI. Keeping Clean—Bleaching. A demonstration to show the making of soap of waste kitchen fat serves as an introduction here. The testing of soap, the use of lye (and commercial products composed of lye), household ammonia, water softeners, and cleansers are studied. Window washing, and silver polishing, the care of porcelain, tile, and woodwork all come under this unit. The problem of hard water and the effect of boiler scale on the heating system are also studied.

Unit VII. Chemistry of Common Things. The production and use of aluminum, brass, silver, silver substitutes, such as stainless steel, iron and steel, tin cans, lead, and common alloys, ceramics, salt, plastics, foods, paper, rubber, flavoring and extracts, matches, fuels, cosmetics, jewelry, and many other items illustrate the opportunities for interesting investigation here.

Unit VIII. Recreation — Hobbies. The application of science to particular hobbies is studied. First, the various hobbies are introduced—both those followed by class members and others which are popular. Second, the relation of the principles, devices, and methods of science to the particular hobby is studied in order to show how increased knowledge will give increased enjoyment. The camera is made the basis of more extended study than most of the other hobbies, both because of its popularity and because it shows clearly how scientific principles help in better work. The physical basis of music and the construction of musical instruments belongs here. The applications of scientific knowledge to gardening, etc., the study of telescope making, the theory of amateur radio, the construction of model airplanes, and elementary aviation theory are listed for those with special interest in these things.

Unit IX. Health or the Medicine Cabinet and How to Avoid Using It. The household medicine cabinet of the past and present are compared. The effect of the diet on health is mentioned briefly. Some of the uses modern doctors make of scientific aids are considered. The use of X-rays under competent doctors is described. Pupils know, when this unit is completed, that cancer can be treated and perhaps cured if found soon enough. The method of administering this course is illustrated well by a consideration of the way this topic of X-rays is handled. An X-ray tube is set up in class and a picture taken of a girl's purse. This negative is turned over for development to the committee working on photography. The negative is then projected for class exam-

ination by the committee in charge of the projection apparatus.

Radium and its uses is also mentioned, and at this time one of the pupils who is interested in biographies of scientists reports on Madame Curie.

The chemists' work in control of food products to protect the health of the community, the achievements of modern science in the study of vitamins, as well as a study of the more easily understood elements of food, furnish sufficient material to make this unit one of the most popular.

Unit X. Insects, Pests and Bacterial Control. The damage done by termites to homes and the methods of their control are studied. The applications of chemistry in the fight against insects, pasteurization methods, refrigerators, thermos bottle, pressure cooking etc., offer many problem situations.

Unit XI. Textiles. The various kinds of textiles and their uses are studied. Simple tests to identify silk, rayon, cotton, and wool are shown. The newer fabrics made of plastics and glass are studied to show how science is changing the world. Rugs and linoleum, as well as the special purpose floor coverings are considered.

Unit XII. Electrical Appliances and Connections. This unit begins with the simple study of the front door bell. Each pupil connects a bell, battery, and push button to learn the circuit. Then more complicated circuits are taken in turn. These include fire-alarm connections where a bell may be rung by pushing any of three buttons and the hall light circuit where a light may be turned on or off from either an upstairs or a downstairs switch. The use of the house lighting current to operate electrical toys is

shown, both to illustrate how to use it, and what precautions to follow. The repair of the cord on the toaster etc., is shown again, both to learn how, and to learn the precautions. A study of the simple circuits and care of radio sets is provided for those interested.

Unit XIII. How We See. The measurement of illumination and its relation to proper lighting; the applications of scientific aids to seeing, glasses, telescopes, and microscopes; the special use of color in the theatre for dramatic effects, as well as a study of why matching of colors is difficult under artificial light—these and similar items are studied in this unit.

Unit XIV. Appreciation of Science. Here are grouped unclassified items, including such topics as a study of the scientific aspects of antarctic exploration; the use of photoelectric cells; modern plastics and their applications, etc. The purpose of this unit is kept in mind throughout all the work of the year and forms a unifying principle for all the studies.

Purposely no reference has been made in the above description to the amount of time given to each unit. It has been found to vary with the needs and interest and abilities of each group. It was impossible to cover all of the

work completely. A new course in science for the twelfth year has been started, and while no attempt has been made to divide the work in these courses on the basis of old line subject matter division, we do find that the physics type of problem appears more often in the eleventh, while the twelfth-year course lays greater emphasis on those of subjects usually included under chemistry.

All of the pupils taking this course are not of the low ability class. Some have elected the work because a lack of interest in the formal work has caused them to drop behind in their scholastic achievement. A wide divergence of abilities within this group presents a problem in itself. To meet this challenge a different technique of teaching is employed. Formal class-work has given way to more individualized instruction concerned with practical learning situations. Class discussions have been made of secondary importance, and are used only to unify the work of the various committees and individuals working on assigned problems. The experiences acquired in this course will be of practical use to each pupil as a member of the family group, a householder, and a citizen of the community.



CURRICULUM PLANNING THROUGH A CENTRAL COMMITTEE

By FLORENCE M. GLEITZ

Chairman, Instructional Policies Committee for Secondary Schools, York, Pennsylvania

OUT OF A growing movement toward greater functionalism in secondary education arise influences which give expression to diverse designs of curriculum revision. Revealing less frequently the tendency to utilize stereotyped patterns of approach, the unpretentious undertaking of the individual community may at times portray an observable degree of uniqueness in the planning of its own curriculum program. This uniqueness may consist not always in the introduction of startling innovations or in the forceful uprooting of traditional practice. It is more often revealed in the gradual, purposive rebuilding of the educational framework of the entire community in accordance with the determining factors in the local situation, on the basis of an acceptable educational philosophy. The present discussion is concerned with certain beginning efforts in a presumably continuous curriculum revision program in York, Pennsylvania, an urban community of approximately sixty thousand inhabitants.

That certain forces, immediate and remote, may operate to engender a readiness to undertake new educational ventures is obviously recognized. In this case a readiness may have taken root in a virile activity program on the elementary level. However, the state of readiness had been growing and developing among local secondary groups under the impetus of a pressing obligation to meet new community needs of a changing youth and adult population.

Recourse to small-scale experimentation with less highly specialized areas of study, the introduction of a special reading program, fragmentary efforts to integrate pupil experiences in two or more fields of study, and the inauguration of a general pupil counseling service exemplify various separate attempts over a period of a few years to change certain aspects of curriculum practice functionally, in order to meet new needs. Apparently, concerted effort was necessary to give unity, purpose, and direction to these initial activities. Toward this end a general curriculum revision program was conceived.

The initiatory action for the study of curriculum emanated from the office of the superintendent of schools. The nature of the action, however, was democratically stimulative, not forcefully directive. In the fall of 1939, following a general conference of an inclusively representative group of secondary teachers, supervisors and principals, twelve individuals, two elementary teachers, and ten secondary teachers were selected to serve with the Chairman as a Committee on Instructional Policies for Secondary Schools. The beginning effort in the local curriculum program for the first year revolved about the activity of this group which presumably provided the leaven which was to have effected a diffusion of curriculum awareness throughout the school system.

A long-range purpose of continuous functional readjustment was projected in the thinking of the group. How-

ever, the immediate purpose of the activity of the first year was to formulate relevant policies and to propose a reasonably constructive course of action, based upon an acceptable educational philosophy, a consideration of needs, and the relative feasibility of meeting these needs in the local situation.

The basic pattern of committee work was a democratically guided course of inquiry, involving all of the members of the group, successively, in the role of discussion leader or participant. Monthly or semimonthly meetings were scheduled on school time. The program for discussion at the separate meetings was pre-planned around crucially important educational themes. Other informal, but purposively arranged, meetings and conferences involved teachers, officials, pupils, and lay individuals. A report of progress was informally submitted to the secondary teaching staff of the different high schools. The thinking of the Committee was supplemented by the judgment and voluntary suggestions of principals and teachers not members of the group. Consultatory service of a curriculum specialist was made available near the end of the year.

The Instructional Policies Committee preferred to assume the role of a creatively propulsive, representative service group rather than that of a central council determining and prescribing a code of educational theories. Contributory to the democratic functioning of committee purposes was the presence of an interested and stimulating official surveillance, and the complete absence of dictatorial pressure or direction.

The task of the Committee during the first year consisted primarily of cooperative study and investigation with reference to certain major considerations: (1) current educational theories and the social scene, (2) the local community background, (3) youth problems, (4) the nature of the learning process, (5) the evolving curriculum. As an initial step, a survey of pertinent bibliographical sources of educational literature was undertaken. This effort yielded the nucleus of a cumulative educational library, which was made available for the study purposes of the group.

Following the critical analysis and study of conflicting educational theories, a general philosophy of education was formulated cooperatively for the guidance of group thinking. In brief, the following viewpoints were adopted as a frame of reference: education must be a dynamic, cooperative process implementing in a positive manner the democratic way of living. Organized education should function for the improvement of community life. The efforts of all community agencies, concerned with the welfare and education of youth, should be coordinated purposefully for more effective functioning. Education seeks the maximum development of the individual so that he may adequately participate in assisting the direction of social progress. The concept of learning includes the well-rounded growth of the whole individual, not merely of his intellectual development. The aim is to make all learning vital at each level of the pupil's advancement. The curriculum represents the whole of the learning activity in which the pupil participates under the guidance of the school. The improvement of instruction involves

the re-evaluation and revision of the curriculum in terms of the foregoing educational philosophy.

Concurrently, beginning studies were undertaken by various members of the Committee (1) to ascertain the trend of educational procedure in selected schools with reference to specific problems, (2) to investigate the educational and occupational opportunities of local community agencies, and (3) to determine the nature of the local youth population, their present interests and probable future choices. The findings of these studies were subsequently incorporated into the yearly report which was distributed to all teachers and principals.

At the beginning of the current year the Instructional Policies Committee formulated general purposes for the progressive advancement of the curriculum revision program. The activity of the members of this central group consisted primarily of informal small-scale experimentation in core curriculum activity, additional research, and the promotion of a plan, with authoritative bases, for the general evaluation of the present status of local curriculum practice on the secondary level. It is proposed that the self-evaluation process, involving a large number of participants, will eventuate in the gradual interpenetration of purposive curriculum thinking and activity throughout the school system.

It is true that an organization of selected representative committees and councils, in vertical and horizontal arrangement, would be more effective in the study of curriculum problems from the standpoint of economy of time. However, such organization in the early stages of an activity might tend to stultify initiative in certain directions and result in general committee dominance. The more democratic approach was to delay formal organization and provide for the participation of teachers and others working together in groups, creating their own various types of leadership. The coordination of the results of such activity can be effected democratically through the Instructional Policies group.

The next steps in the program will involve a plan to establish a functional community approach with reference to educational problems; and a plan to stimulate the program of curriculum development through local summer workshop activity. Progress will depend upon the degree to which teachers can be stimulated to attack their problems cooperatively — studying, planning for informal experimentation, and evaluating results. Curriculum material may be subsequently developed, not in advance, but on the basis of the records of successful experimental activity in the pupil-teacher learning situation.

Short Articles

MEETING OF THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

By J. Paul Leonard
Executive Secretary, Society for Curriculum Study

THE FOLLOWING discussions and actions were taken at the meeting: Dean Peik reported on the activities of the Committee on In-Service and Pre-Service Training of Teachers. During the discussion the feeling was expressed that the plans of the original committee were of such a nature that if they were carried out work would be duplicated that had since been published. There was a feeling also that the personnel of the original committee had been appointed to do this original job. At Dean Peik's suggestion the Executive Committee voted to discharge the present committee, asking that this committee propose recommendations for plans of action for the Executive Committee, which it might take in continuing a study in the area of teacher education. Dean Peik indicated that his committee would meet the following day and prepare such a report to submit to the Executive Committee.

Mr. Arndt reported on the activities of the Committee on Foreign Cultures, stating that all but one chapter was completed. Several suggestions were made by the Committee for improving certain chapters. Publication plans were discussed, and it was decided that the Executive Secretary should seek to enter into contract with D. Appleton-Century Company for publication of the volume on foreign culture, indicating that the manuscript would be ready about September 1. It was

thought desirable to hold this book for 1941 copyright date.

Edgar Dale and Dean McClusky appeared before the Committee with an outline of the major points on visual aids to be treated in the joint publication of the Society for Curriculum Study and the Department of Visual Instruction. This report grew out of a conference between the two earlier in the day. The general outline was approved by the Executive Committee, and the Visual Aid Committee was instructed to proceed to develop a detailed outline, which would be submitted to representative people and later to the Executive Committee for final approval. No further members to the Committee will be appointed until the chairman requests such appointment. It was thought desirable by the Executive Committee that the emphasis in the yearbook should be upon the modern curriculum programs and the implications and use of visual materials in relation to these programs.

Mr. W. H. Bristow reported on the Committee on Home and Family Life for the chairman, Miss Bess Goodykoontz. Mrs. Ethel Mabie Falk was appointed to succeed Miss Edith Bader on the committee. Doctor Goodykoontz indicated that she expected the book to be ready for the press early in 1941.

Dr. Karl Bigelow requested the Society for Curriculum Study to cooperate in sponsoring a joint meeting on teacher education at the annual meetings on the American Association of School Administrators. The Executive Committee took the following ac-

tion: (a) that we accept the invitation to join with other groups as a sponsoring organization; (b) that we agree to send representatives to the Saturday afternoon session of the joint conference on teacher education; (c) that we send a representative to the teacher education dinner whenever it is held; (d) that we feel it is impossible to give up our Saturday afternoon session of the Society for Curriculum Study in view of the fact that we have only three sessions scheduled each year.

Miss Helen Heffernan reported on the organization and activities of the Committee on Rural Education, indicating that the committee organization was worked out on a regional basis. She expressed the idea of the committee as being "a feeling that environment is a determining factor in curriculum development, and that the yearbook should stress the adaptation of the curriculum to the needs and interests of rural children." The progress of the committee was approved. Discussion was held as to ways for securing funds for promoting committee meetings and Miss Heffernan was authorized to proceed to explore the possibilities for securing funds for financing further study by the committee. A short report was given on "Building America," which was accepted by the Committee.

William Wattenberg inquired concerning the desire of the Society for Curriculum Study to encourage affiliation with a group interested in promoting the idea of community studies. Since his group was meeting that afternoon and had no definite proposal to present to the Executive Committee, the Committee voted to ask Mr. Wattenberg to submit a definite proposal from his organization. The Commit-

tee then agreed to act upon it by correspondence.

Mr. Arthur Linden reported for Herbert Bruner on the Committee on Curriculum Laboratories and Workshops. He gave a report on the questionnaire sent out by the committee and also enlarged upon the report given at the curriculum meeting on Saturday. The progress of the committee was approved and it was recommended that Doctor Bruner consider mimeographing a brief report or making it available to the members of the Society through the CURRICULUM JOURNAL. At least it was thought well to ask Doctor Bruner to submit a summary and interpretation to the JOURNAL. It was recommended that the word "workshop" be stricken from the title of the committee and the report.

Mr. Hugh Wood appeared before the Committee to propose a yearbook on evaluation to be sponsored by the Society. The Committee voted to take under consideration the suggestion, but to postpone work on such a report at this time due to the many publications now already in progress by the Society.

Mr. Holland Roberts reported on his function as chairman of the advisory committee of the Society to the Commission on Cooperative Curriculum Planning. He reported the results of the meeting the day before, held in Chicago. His report was accepted and the Committee continued. He reported that the question considered was "How can teachers trained in special fields contribute to a program of general education?" The Executive Secretary was instructed to write the chairman of the committee, John DeBoer, expressing the continued interest of the Society in serving in

an advisory capacity to the Commission.

Robert Koopman made a request regarding his Committee on Secondary Education. The following action was taken: (a) Dr. L. W. Kindred was added to the committee; (b) it was suggested that the principals of secondary schools sending in reports not be added to the committee since the committee was already large enough, but that they be given recognition for their work by being called contributors to the report; (c) the Committee suggested that they could not act upon the matter of financing the report until they knew the cost involved, and requested Mr. Koopman to estimate the cost and present the request again to the Executive Committee when the report is ready. It will be acted upon by correspondence.

Dr. Samuel Everett of Northwestern University was elected chairman of the Executive Committee. Dr. Edgar Draper of the University of Washington and Mr. Paul Misner, Superintendent of Schools, Glencoe, Illinois, were elected members of the Executive Committee to replace Ralph Russell and Miss Prudence Cutright. The present Executive Committee is as follows: Samuel Everett (chairman), Northwestern University; Paul J. Misner, Glencoe, Illinois; Edgar Draper, University of Washington; Doak S. Campbell, George Peabody College; H. L. Caswell, Columbia University; Helen Heffernan, California State Department of Education; J. Cecil Parker, Michigan State Department of Public Instruction; J. Paul Leonard, Executive Secretary.

J. Paul Leonard was re-elected Executive Secretary for a term of two years. The report of the Auditing

Committee, appointed to audit the books of the Executive Secretary and the Editor of the CURRICULUM JOURNAL, were read and approved. The committee approved the financial statements from the two offices. The proposed budget for 1940-41 was approved by the Executive Committee.

Dr. George Zook of the American Council on Education invited the Society for Curriculum Study to cooperate with a number of other organizations in a consideration of a study of the most pressing problems of secondary education. This group is to work with the American Council on Education in proposing problems for study. The Executive Committee accepted the invitation and asked the new chairman, Dr. Samuel Everett, to serve as representative of the Society until the appointment of a committee made by the Executive Committee.

The National Kindergarten Association requested the Society for Curriculum Study to approve Bill S. 2510 —H. R. 6474, proposing the allocation of funds for the establishment and maintenance of kindergartens. The Executive Committee voted to decline to sign the resolution suggested, indicating that it is against the policy of the organization to sponsor such resolutions without having them referred to the entire membership, and no opportunity existed at the St. Louis meeting to discuss this resolution properly.

The following program committee was appointed for next year: William B. Brown (chairman), Frank Jenkins, B. O. Smith, Will French. It was proposed that the Society for Curriculum Study consider the problem of working out a report on consumer education. Since no proposal was in

definite form, the Society members making the proposal were to be instructed to formulate a definite proposal and present it to the Executive Secretary for action by members of the Executive Committee. It was suggested that Hugh Wood be written a letter, expressing the appreciation of the Executive Committee for his suggestions for extending the membership of the Society.

DEMOCRACY IN THE CLASSROOM

By Archie W. Troelstrup
New Trier Township High School,
Winnetka, Illinois

WHAT CAN WE do in the classroom or through teacher practice, influence, and direction to increase the likelihood of youngsters to practice the democratic way of life? This is a challenge that society as a whole must attempt to meet.

More and more the schools are expected to assume the major responsibility for the attitudes and conduct of the students in the face of increasingly powerful negative forces encountered in poverty and unemployment, ill-health, movies, radio, and the press. This situation raises several questions: Have we placed too much responsibility for teaching democratic living on the social studies teacher? What phase of responsibility for teaching democracy should and can be handled by the classroom teachers? Can we obtain better results by enlisting the active support of the school and the community to accept the responsibility for organizing the school as a laboratory of democratic living?

It seems desirable to concentrate on two shortages in the prevailing patterns of American life—shortages in

educational administrative leadership in democracy and in teacher personality, training, experience, and social responsibility.

In suggesting possible solutions for these shortages, we might start from the top and work down. Classroom teachers will probably agree with me that we have two strikes on us before we begin to teach effective democracy. For example, it is becoming increasingly difficult to teach controversial issues in the classroom. In many schools it simply isn't cricket to subject the propaganda of booming radio demagogues to analysis, to study the starvation diets of relief families, to analyze the cream content of local milk, or to inspect the plunder of political machines. The assumption is that our students are more apt to find the best answers to our social problems by accidental and often uninformed discussions outside the school. This is nothing short of rank gambling with our democratic ideals.

A little genuine encouragement from administrators would lead to more effective teaching of the democratic way of life. Therefore, it seems wise to suggest that administrators open the way for the teaching and effective practice of democratic ideals throughout the school system. This has been done, in a few schools, by organizing a permanent committee on school philosophy. This committee prepares a report setting forth the basic principles to be used throughout the whole system, after thorough discussion and acceptance by the faculty, board of education, and the student body. A special committee on democracy in the school (faculty and perhaps students) can be organized for the purpose of putting the philosophy

into practice, to act as a clearing-house for faculty and students, to make recommendations and to continuously evaluate the program. Gradually, attitudes and appreciations which are appropriate to its underlying philosophy could be built up. If these principles are really democratic, the school must undertake to exemplify, in its organization and procedures, its concepts of democratic living. Then the classroom can be a place where pupils go, not merely to learn essential facts, but to carry on a way of life through experiences within the whole school system.

Schools organized for more effective teaching and practice of democracy have paved the way for more democratic experiences in classes by (1) the application of democratic principles to the making and execution of policies; (2) more effective means of developing an informed teacher opinion regarding her status in the community, both as a citizen and as a professional person; (3) developing devices by which the participation of teachers is extended beyond the method of discussion and voting; (4) having educational policies and administrative practices which will encourage broader social experiences for teachers, such as exchange teachers and students, arrangements for leaves of absence, reduced teacher load, increased salaries, recognition of the value of participation in non-teacher and non-school organizations; (5) allocation of authority, responsibility, and function among the interests involved: the public, the board of education, the executive, the teachers, students and parents. One school, for example, is attempting to harmonize public school administration with the spirit of democracy by

organizing a committee on pupil needs made up of students, principal, teachers, and the superintendent of schools. The practice of democratic principles at the top will have a wholesome effect on teaching the democratic way of life in all classrooms and other school organizations, providing teachers are willing and able to carry out the program. And this brings up the second shortage in effective teaching of democracy—the teacher.

Is it not true that many of us do not have an understanding of American culture particularly with respect to its reliance on the ideal of democracy as a pattern of human relationship? Is it not true that many of us, in trying to apply the democratic ideas to classroom procedures, have not seen, or have not wished to see, the implications of these ideas for the social order as a whole? Is it not true that, too often, we speak glibly of the right and duty of citizens to work for and organize to improve conditions, but we are unaware or uninterested in organizing or joining actively in clubs, associations or political parties in order to carry out these obligations more effectively? There seems to be some truth to the statement that the power teachers exercise in the schools can be no greater than the power they wield in society. In their own lives they must bridge the gap between school and society and play some part in the fashioning of those great common purposes which should bind the two together. Is it not common practice to teach democracy in the abstract in spite of the knowledge that such teaching is about as effective as teaching swimming by correspondence?

We should be grateful, however, for some progress in more effective

teacher guidance in the democratic way of living. In a few schools the opportunities for pupils to share are increasingly being extended to include: (1) choosing of goals, the selection of experiences within the subjects of the curriculum that will contribute to those goals and the evaluation of experiences; (2) pupil-teacher planning in determining content, methods, sequence of units; (3) organizing school cooperatives and credit unions; (4) encouragement to join community and school civic-betterment movements; (5) joining political parties of their own choosing; (6) community surveys directed so as to overcome indifference to civic responsibilities; (7) experiences through which students and teachers participate in the daily life of the school and assume responsibility for their own conduct as citizens within the school and in the community; (8) provision for a social environment, in which the welfare and happiness of its members are promoted so that the individual can more nearly identify his own welfare and that of others with the general welfare of all.

It seems to me that schools having an adequate philosophy of democracy, understood and accepted by faculty and students, are in a position to place responsibilities for carrying out the program on the shoulders of all the teachers.

Social studies teachers, however, should assume leadership in this work. In some schools the social studies classroom has been directly responsible for stimulating the student body into action. In two schools, where the philosophy of democracy has been seriously discussed and generally accepted for the whole school, the ideas discussed

in the social studies classroom are usually brought to the attention of the student council. The student council has frequently acted on many of the classroom resolutions leading to (1) student control of study halls; (2) the calling of student and faculty open forums for frank discussion of problems such as attitude in assemblies, at school games, in private theatres, at class parties and dances; (3) forming a special committee made up of representatives from the Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Parent-Teacher Association, local Chamber of Commerce, and the schools to solve the problem of petty thievery in the community; (4) discussion on the local bicycle ordinance, leading eventually to a meeting of the council with the police department and the village manager (the students were given the responsibility of writing an ordinance that can be understood and made effective); (5) organizing an all-school assembly committee representing the faculty, administration, and students (the chairman of the committee is a student); (6) organizing a school cooperative, a community cooperative, and a credit union; (7) community action based on school surveys of housing conditions, recreation and playground needs, poor lighting, and traffic problems.

There seems to be no final answer to the problem of more effective teaching and guidance of students in the democratic way of living. The suggestion outlined implies that one approach might be to (1) work out an adequate school philosophy acceptable to all concerned; (2) establish a committee on democracy in the school to carry out the program and evaluate the experiences; (3) educate teachers and administrators so that all might better

understand American culture, especially with respect to its reliance on the ideal of democracy as the pattern of human relationship; (4) encourage teachers to attain this understanding through facts plus experience in the democratic way of doing things, thereby living fuller and more satisfying lives as persons, and fulfilling the responsibilities as citizens more intelligently.

THE ANNUAL MEETING OF THE SOCIETY¹

By B. O. Smith
University of Illinois

THE PROGRAM of the annual meeting of the Society for Curriculum Study was centered around four points of discussion: (a) the characteristics of workshops and laboratories; (b) the way in which participation in curriculum reconstruction contributes to the development of teachers; (c) the initiation and development of state curriculum programs; and (d) outstanding instructional practices.

The qualities of workshops, as presented by Mr. Kenneth Heaton, are, for the most part, those that characterize problem-solving activities wherever found. It was pointed out that participants came to the workshops with specific interests and problems that have grown out of their experiences in school situations. The workshop provides facilities and an experienced staff for participants while they follow up their interests, define problems, and work out tentative solutions or plans. In course of his study, the participant works with groups and takes part in informal associations with others so as to broad-

en his social background and extend his interests.

After pointing out the phases of development through which curriculum laboratories have passed, Mr. E. B. Roberts discussed the place of laboratories in a state program of curriculum development. From the standpoint of his discussion, a laboratory, serving a state school system, renders many services which a workshop may not afford, though there is nothing inherent in the latter that would prevent it from serving whatever functions the curriculum program required. In general the functions of a laboratory in a state-wide program are: (a) serves as a clearinghouse, (b) promotes cooperative thinking and planning, (c) makes materials accessible to people in the field, (d) encourages evaluation of instructional materials, and (e) promotes teacher-training programs.

The panel discussion of the papers revolved about two issues: first, whether the qualities of a workshop were those which should characterize any good instructional program, and if so, why not assimilate the workshop idea in the professional preparation of teachers rather than develop it as an appendage; and, second, whether or not there is any significant difference between a workshop and a curriculum laboratory.

With respect to the first question, it seems safe to say that the educational theory underlying the workshop was generally accepted as sound and some would therefore reconstruct teacher education along the lines of the workshop idea or some modification of it. On the other hand, others seem to feel that the reconstruction of the program of teacher education need not

¹The April, 1940, number of the Curriculum Journal contains the papers by Kenneth L. Heaton, Ruth Henderson, and Frederick J. Weersing, to which reference is made in this report.

wipe out the workshop by completely absorbing it. At any rate, the fundamental notion of a group of people working on their problems while enjoying the stimulation of all the favorable conditions that can be provided was accepted without question.

As to the distinction between a workshop and a laboratory, little need be said. As was brought out in the discussion, the difference appears to be largely a matter of viewpoint. When materials and material services are thought of, some use the word laboratory. But when the educative process is the object of thought, and not merely the materials, the term workshop is used. In general the workshop idea has extended our vision of the services a curriculum laboratory can render. It has united the materials and services of a laboratory, on the one hand, and the best educational theory, on the other, in the common task of improving teachers and administrators.

The Saturday afternoon session was devoted to a discussion of the relation of curriculum development to inservice training of teachers. Miss Ruth Henderson's discussion of this topic was based upon the returns from a questionnaire sent to teachers, principals, superintendents, college teachers, and others who were experienced in curriculum work. There are many questions about which teachers are increasingly concerned. We shall mention only some of these questions as brought out by Miss Henderson. Curriculum revision is making new modes of evaluation necessary. How, the teachers ask, can evaluation over a long period of time be done without involving burdensome record-keeping and other time-consuming devices?

With curriculum revision there comes the necessity of working with outside agencies. What, the teachers ask, are the better ways of working with such organized groups? Curriculum revision also requires some experimentation by the teacher; it presupposes an experimental attitude. How, the teachers ask, can the school administration be induced to provide security for teachers engaged in experimentation?

Speaking on the same subject, Mr. F. J. Weersing presented the view that administrators are increasingly depending upon programs of curriculum development to help teachers see education as the development of children in good habits of work, wholesome social attitudes, worthy intellectual interests, high ideals of personal conduct, and sound life values. In order to achieve this end curriculum development must be carried on by the entire staff and not by a few select teachers who take all the responsibility.

In the panel discussion which followed, it was assumed that curriculum reconstruction does facilitate the growth of those individuals who participate. The discussion, therefore, revolved around certain questions and issues related to procedures by which the most extensive development of teachers could be had from curriculum improvement. Some of these questions and issues were: (a) How can a hundred per cent of the teachers participate? (b) What is the best source of guidance and help for teachers? (c) What kinds of growth—in what directions—do teachers and administrators need? (d) Should one group of teachers work out something for another group to use? In general it was the consensus that the democratic notion of curriculum develop-

ment requires that there be no domination of teachers by those in higher authority no matter whether the authority stems from rank or from superior knowledge.

Mr. Doak S. Campbell presided over a lively and stimulating panel discussion on the problems involved in initiating and developing a state program of curriculum improvement. The major questions considered were as follows: 1. How should a program of curriculum development be started? 2. Should a state course of study be used? 3. How can teacher participation be obtained in curriculum development programs? 4. How shall curriculum programs be evaluated?

After full and free discussion the following guiding points seem to emerge: 1. State curriculum development programs, which have been started by considering basic and fundamental unsatisfactory conditions in education, seem to offer considerable possibilities for success. 2. States should not use definite, restrictive courses of study, but there is a need for a frame of reference or curriculum guide within which the curriculum program may develop. 3. Plans for obtaining teacher participation, as discussed by the panel, were: (1) attacking common problems in cooperation with local school systems; (2) having teachers submit units of work to the state office; and (3) working in curriculum workshops. 4. Studying state problems, presenting our real problems to the lay public, and giving lay groups something to do—other than listen—were suggested as ways of obtaining lay participation. 5. The point was stressed that evaluation is difficult; that it must include the whole school situation; and that we need to develop ways

and means for making better evaluations of curriculum work.

At the annual luncheon a report on the various functions of the Society was made by Mr. J. Paul Leonard, executive secretary, and by chairmen of the various continuing committees. The latter includes committees on: the study of foreign cultures, regional conferences and meetings, home and family life, rural schools, and secondary education.

WORK CAMPS FOR AMERICA

By Kenneth Holland

Associate Director of the American Youth Commission

THE WORK CAMP movement in the United States had a dramatic beginning on March 31, 1933, when Congress gave President Roosevelt the authority to establish the Civilian Conservation Corps "... for the purpose of relieving the acute condition of widespread distress and unemployment now existing in the United States, and in order to provide for the restoration of the country's depleted natural resources and the advancement of an orderly program of useful public works . . ."

On April 7, 1933, the first young man was selected and enrolled for the CCC. Ten days later, on April 17, the first camp was established in Luray, Virginia, and within three months about 250,000 young men between the ages of eighteen and twenty-five, 25,000 war veterans, and 25,000 experienced woodsmen had been placed in 1,468 camps scattered through every state in the Union. These camps were designed primarily to assist young unmarried men whose families needed relief. As a group the enrollees have had only about eight years of elemen-

tary school education and have had very little work experience before entering the CCC.

Recently the National Youth Administration has developed about 600 projects called resident centers which are in many ways similar to work camps. At the present time they house about 30,000 young men and young women between the ages of eighteen and twenty-five and provide four hours of work and four hours of related training each weekday. Before coming to the resident centers the youth have completed an average of two years of high school. Thus the resident centers provide work-training experience for a slightly different group of youth than do the CCC camps.

Unlike our CCC camps and NYA resident centers in this country the systems of camps in Europe, which have been in existence since 1920, had a slower, less spectacular, and perhaps sounder, early development. Most of the camps in Europe were first established on an experimental basis during 1919 and 1920 on a very small scale with the active support of college and university students. While camps for the unemployed grew out of these experiments, the camps for students have been continued every summer for the past fifteen years and have provided an important supplementary educational experience.

Convinced that work camp experience in areas of social and economic tension would be beneficial for American college and university youth, the American Friends Service Committee began organizing camps in 1934 and has conducted several such projects each summer for the past six years. Ten camps are planned for the sum-

mer of 1940 and should provide accommodations for about 400 college and university youth. The Progressive Education Association in cooperation with the American Friends Service Committee has organized several experimental camps for high school students during recent summers.

These work camps and resident centers provide youth with experiences of definite value in preparing them for adult life, difficult to obtain elsewhere. In the first place the programs are work-centered—the young people receive work experience. At the end of the day each young man or woman is faced with the reality of his own accomplishments, possibly for the first time in his life. Many are sharing a new experience by working in the out-of-doors in contact with the rugged forces of nature. This type of experience during the movement westward would seem to have had a profound influence on the course of American life and William James, one of our greatest philosophers, has suggested that we should draft our youth, especially our "gilded youth," for this work service. James said that as a result young folk would return to their homes "better fathers and teachers of the following generation."

In the second place, the projects provide youth with the experience of group living. For the first time many are forced to take into consideration the feelings and interests of individuals quite different from themselves. They must of necessity contribute unselfishly to the group life if they are to be accepted as members of the camp or resident center community. Thus they are provided with a socializing influence that is beneficial for all,

especially those from isolated rural areas.

In the third place the young men and women go through an educational experience of an informal nature quite different from that which they have experienced in the established school systems. The manual labor is in itself a type of training. In camps and projects of this kind, especially if they are located in areas of social and economic tension, the knowledge of the participants is increased considerably by informal conversation with fellow campers and local residents. Firsthand information about sanitation, health, budgeting, preparation of meals and recreation is acquired by taking responsibility for these phases of camp life.

The trip to such a work camp, usually a considerable distance from home, is in itself educational. Field trips to near-by industries or places of historical interest, a customary part of the camp activity program, also contribute to the process of orientation to a wider world. Frequently the younger generation gains an entirely new understanding of American folkways through contact with people from an entirely different background.

The well-known report, "Issues of Secondary Education," prepared by the Department of Secondary School Principals under the chairmanship of Thomas L. Briggs states that: "The secondary school ought not to be thought of as providing the sole means of education, nor even in every instance the best means of education, for boys and girls who have completed the work of the elementary grades."

The report goes on to point out that a very considerable proportion of the enrollment in secondary schools

since the depression "is comprised of pupils of a different type—boys and girls who are almost mature physically, who are normal mentally in the sense that they are quite capable of holding their own with the ordinary adult, but who are unable or unwilling to deal successfully with continued study under the conditions which even the best secondary schools impose. The fact that many of these pupils would far rather be out of school at work than in school . . . makes their problem the more difficult of solution . . ."

Experience with work camps indicates that they are well adapted to the needs and interests of many of the boys and girls described in the Briggs report. But where are the secondary schools that will recognize the value of camps and develop them as a part of their educational programs? Where are the school administrators who will do some pioneering in education and develop a training program for their youth that will prepare them for the responsibilities of adult life? Where are the teachers who will abandon the complacent safety of the classroom and the textbook and go and live and work with the youth under conditions similar to real life?

In order to promote work camps for students, to serve as a clearinghouse for ideas and make it possible for larger numbers of young men and women to participate in the work camps, an organization known as *Work Camps for America* has been established. Its national advisory committee is composed of Frank P. Graham, Clarence E. Pickett, Homer P. Rainey, Floyd W. Reeves, Eleanor Roosevelt, Dorothy Thompson, Ray Lyman Wilbur, and George F. Zook. While limited in resources at present, Work Camps

for America will help groups interested in establishing camps, select sites, plan the programs, and secure administrative personnel.

SURVEY OF STATE CURRICULUM PROGRAMS

By Tom Byrd Van Brunt

Graduate Assistant, Curriculum Laboratory,
University of Florida

JUST WHAT elements go to make up the typical state program for curriculum improvement? In an attempt to find an answer to this question, questionnaires were sent to the State Departments of Education of the forty-eight states and the District of Columbia in December, 1939. Every state responded to these requests for information.

The investigator drew up the list of items, which appeared on the check list, after a study of several state programs, as outlined in State Department publications on file in the Florida Curriculum Laboratory in the P. K. Yonge Laboratory School in Gainesville. The items in the list are not, of course, a complete listing of all the elements which may be involved in a program of curriculum revision, but they do represent a fairly concise listing of the various elements which are most common in these programs. The provisional spaces in the check list were used in a large number of cases by state representatives who did not feel that their programs could be shown by the check list alone.

Any picture of a typical state program is necessarily incomplete, but an attempt to formulate such a picture does aid in bringing out general trends in this field. An item on the check

list with which a majority of states agreed was taken to be typical.

The typical state has a program of curriculum improvement for both the elementary and the secondary schools. This program is actively encouraged and sponsored by the State Department of Education. The teacher-training institutions in the state are back of the state program and are doing much to promote its advancement. The State Education Association and the local schools are fairly active in this work.

The typical state program has the following purposes: to meet changing social needs; to increase professional interest; to improve schools and, therefore, life experience; to give increased attention to the individual; to understand better the pupil; and to produce courses of study.

Materials being used in the typical state program are prepared by special committees with the help of the State Department of Education. These materials are available to the teachers upon request. The State Department distributes some of these through district study groups.

Printed materials are used most extensively to reach the teacher in service in the typical state program. Summer school courses in improved techniques are offered by the teacher-training institutions of the typical state. There are State Department consultants whose job it is to conduct faculty study groups and county or district study groups.

Specific state programs do not, of course, agree in all details with the typical program which is summarized above. However, there is a large number of points of similarity in the various state programs. This seems

to be evidence of a state of agreement which is wholesome; it indicates that the field of curriculum improvement has gone beyond the theoretical stage, and that those methods which have proved valuable are being put into practice.

There are several important trends indicated by the survey. Among these, probably the most significant is the fact that there was no state program mentioned on only four out of the forty-nine check lists. Thirty-six states are actively engaged in some type of program for curriculum improvement at the present time, according to the returns from the questionnaire. Of the thirteen additional states from whom information was received, three—Connecticut, District of Columbia, and Minnesota—advised that plans for curriculum improvement are being formulated at this time. Six others—Arkansas, Nevada, North Carolina, South Dakota, Texas, and West Virginia—indicated that there are programs of a follow-up nature being carried on. In this latter case, former state programs for the improvement of the curriculum have been formally closed, but the materials and courses of study which were produced are now being used and efforts are being made to evaluate them. Maryland has a "continuous program of curriculum revision by counties." In the cases of Kentucky, Massachusetts, and Rhode Island, there is no information except that there is no state curriculum program in progress at this time.

Twenty-five states have programs of curriculum improvement for both the elementary and the secondary schools. Eight state programs are limited to the elementary schools, while only

three are limited to the secondary schools. Curriculum revision is being carried on in the teacher-training institutions of five states and in the junior colleges of one state.

The curriculum laboratory and the summer workshop—both fairly new arrivals in the field of teacher education and curriculum improvement—are being used by about one-third of the states. There are fourteen states using curriculum laboratories and fifteen states using summer workshops in the United States.

One of the most interesting and wholesome trends discovered in this study is the fact that there is almost unanimous agreement with the idea that curriculum revision and improvement must be a continuous process. Numerous "three-year" or "four-year" programs have been extended and made permanent parts of the work of the State Departments of Education. In other cases, financial difficulties have forced the discontinuance of the formal program for curriculum improvement; but in all such cases, these stops are considered postponements and not final terminations.

A less nearly unanimous opinion—but one that does seem significant—is expressed in the tabulation of the section dealing with purposes of the programs. The production of courses of study was given as one of the purposes by twenty-three states; however, ten states definitely said that this was not one of their purposes, and three other states specified that it was a "secondary" purpose. Extremes in viewpoints upon this question are represented on one side by those check lists upon which an underlined "NO" appears after the item concerning courses of study, and on the other side by a

letter from one State Superintendent of Public Instruction which reads: "Since the State Department of Education . . . has just issued a new Course of Study for the Elementary Grades, we have not started any program of curriculum improvement at the present time."

The following summary chart has been worked out from the check lists in order to give a clear picture of the trends in state programs for curriculum improvement. All items having a frequency of two or less were omitted from the table.

- I. There is a state program for curriculum improvement in progress at this time.
 - a. Elementary 32
 - b. Secondary 27
 - *c. Teacher training 5
- II. The following agencies are actively cooperating in this program:
 - a. State Departments of Education 36
 - b. Teacher - training institutions 31
 - c. Local schools 22
 - d. State Education Associations 22
 - e. Parent - Teacher Associations 13
 - f. County boards 9
- III. The purposes of this program are as follows:
 - a. To meet changing social needs 34
 - b. To increase professional interest 33
 - c. To improve schools and, therefore, life experiences. 33
 - d. To give increased attention to the individual 27
 - e. To understand better the pupil 25

| | |
|---|----|
| f. To produce courses of study | 23 |
| g. To increase parental interest | 19 |
| IV. Materials for program are being written by: | |
| a. Special committees | 28 |
| b. State Department | 26 |
| c. Bulletin groups in summer sessions | 16 |
| d. Curriculum laboratory | 14 |
| V. Materials for program are distributed: | |
| a. Upon request | 22 |
| b. Through district study groups by State Department | 17 |
| c. By mail to all teachers in the state | 12 |
| *d. By county or division superintendent to all teachers | 9 |
| VI. The following methods are being used to reach the teacher in service: | |
| a. Printed materials | 32 |
| b. Summer school courses in teacher - training institutions | 28 |
| c. State Department consultants | 27 |
| d. Faculty study groups | 27 |
| e. County and district study groups | 27 |
| f. Summer workshops | 15 |

*Indicates that this item was added to the check list by one or more states.

A BASIS FOR CURRICULUM PLANNING

By William L. Wrinkle
Director, The Secondary School, Colorado State College of Education

THE FOLLOWING represents the thinking basic to the development of the experimental general education

program of the secondary school of Colorado State College of Education at Greeley.

Educational literature presents no evidence indicating that any secondary school has yet formulated a comprehensive, workable, clear-cut statement of the objectives of secondary education which is sufficiently simple and specific to provide an effective guide to curriculum planning. Statements of purposes and objectives are usually highly generalized—e. g., training for citizenship. Such generalized terms demand interpretation before they can be used. Unfortunately, they are capable of multiple interpretations. Statements of the purposes and objective of secondary education place the emphasis on skills, knowledge, generalizations, understandings, appreciations, attitudes, etc.—outcomes relating chiefly to what the individual knows and understands rather than what he does.

Learning is the modification of behavior. Behavior may be modified by learning in either a desirable or an undesirable direction. The purpose of education is to produce desirable modifications in the behavior of the learner. The desired results of education may be specifically described in terms of desired ways of behaving.

Statements of ways of behaving can be made specific and objective so that they would readily lend themselves to use in curriculum planning. Learning which does not modify behavior is of no real value: knowing that the speed limit in downtown Greeley is twenty-five miles per hour, but driving forty miles per hour; knowing the binomial theorem, but not using it; knowing what problems

should be met scientifically, but meeting problems on the basis of prejudice.

Skills, knowledge, understandings, appreciations, attitudes, etc., if they are essential or basic, will be reflected in the current behavior of the individual. We need not wait ten years before evidences of basic behavior have an opportunity to show themselves. The evidences may become more complex or of a higher order in adult living, but evidences of a simpler level will be observable in child living. For example, the boy or girl will not have the opportunity to demonstrate an ability to vote intelligently in the election of city officials. However, he does have the opportunity to demonstrate the same ability in elections in his present group living. The fifth-grade boy is not likely to be interested in adult classical literature, but he may be interested in literature at his own level.

The first step in secondary school curriculum planning is to answer the question: How should the product of the American secondary school behave? One answer to the problem would be: He should participate cooperatively in group living. This leads to the next question: How does a person behave who participates cooperatively in group living? Keep this up and eventually you arrive at statements of specific ways of behaving.

General education is that education which is concerned with the development of ways of behaving which are essential or desirable on the part of all or practically all people in a society. Any particular, desirable way of behaving may be the product of any one of several different types of experience. There is probably no one body of content or single type of experience

which might be regarded as the exclusive approach to producing a particular type of behavior. General education is as likely to result as effectively from differentiated experiences, of which no two individuals might have the same combination, as from a core or single type of experience prescribed for all, such as a core curriculum, survey course, etc.

Learning is more effective if it is based upon a real interest and involves a real purpose and recognition of value on the part of the learner. The most adequate program for secondary education will involve, at least in part, a program organized on the basis of problems representing real interests and needs of boys and girls which contribute to the achievement of desirable behaviors on the part of the learner. The essential steps in curriculum planning are: 1. the identification of the desired behavior outcomes; 2. a recognition of the real problems and interests of youth; and 3. the organization of a flexible instructional program which will make it possible for the student to engage in learning activities based upon his interests and needs.

JUNIOR COLLEGES STUDY TERMINAL EDUCATION

By Edward F. Mason

Director of Publication, Commission on
Junior College Terminal Education

WHAT CAN the junior colleges do, and what should they do, for students who will not continue their formal education beyond the fourteenth grade? That, stated simply, is the problem set for itself by the Commission on Junior College Terminal Education, organized under the auspices of the American Association of

Junior Colleges and financed for a year of exploratory study by the General Education Board. "Terminal education" has an unfamiliar sound to the laity, and perhaps even in educational circles it will bear defining. The term designates a course of study that occupies two years of college work and then terminates. It is thus the parallel of the freshman and sophomore years. But instead of being a preparation for the junior and senior years, it is intended to meet the most vital needs of a student whose formal education is about to end.

Of all the problems confronting the Junior colleges, the problem of terminal education is recognized by leaders of the junior college movement as by far the most pressing.

The Commission on Junior College Terminal Education is approaching its task with extreme realism. There is to be nothing *ex cathedra*. First will come a study of what actually is being done. This will be accompanied by preparation of a thorough bibliography on terminal education. Another monograph will state the philosophy of junior college terminal education. The year's study will close, not with a supposed solution of the problem, but with an outline of investigations in which the junior colleges of the country may themselves participate, in a program of self-analysis which will continue into the future, and a statement of special areas in which additional study is needed. Participation of the commission in this future program is also desired.

Systematic public information will accompany the whole procedure, to acquaint both the laity and the educational world with what the junior col-

leges are doing in general, and particularly in terminal education.

The first monograph to come out of the study will deal with "The Status of Junior College Terminal Education," and is scheduled for publication late this summer or in early fall. It will be a comprehensive analysis of what is being done in this field. Much of the information has been assembled already by reason of the fact that the director of the study, Dr. Walter C. Eells of Washington, D. C., is also the editor of *American Junior Colleges*, a general junior college reference volume being prepared under a grant from the Carnegie Foundation as a companion volume to *American Universities and Colleges*. Dr. Eells has taken the opportunity to collect material for both investigations in the same questionnaire, but will supplement this information by additional research. A coauthor of this monograph will be President Byron S. Hollinshead of Scranton-Keystone Junior College, La Plume, Pennsylvania, past president of the American Association of Junior Colleges, who will present findings resulting from four months of field study of junior colleges throughout the country.

An extensive bibliography, with the suggested title, "Literature of Junior College Terminal Education," will appear at about the same time. This is now being prepared by Miss Lois Engleman, a trained librarian on leave from Frances Shimer Junior College, Illinois. Some 7,000 titles are to be examined, of which it is estimated

from 1,500 to 2,500 will be found to have significant bearing on the terminal field. These will be annotated, classified, and indexed. Classifications for the respective semi-professional fields will be included.

"Why Terminal Education?" is the probable title of a third study, setting forth the philosophy of terminal education from the standpoint of general background and reasons, both theoretical and practical.

Plans for institutional self-analysis are suggested in a series of proposals now being made to the junior colleges, indicating the possible studies envisioned by the commission and asking the colleges to indicate those in which they would like to cooperate.

To promote participation in the study, a series of twenty-four to twenty-five regional conferences is proposed, so spaced in cities throughout the country that each junior college may have access to some conference in its own state or an adjacent state. Most of these conferences, it is planned, will be held next fall, but a few have been scheduled for this spring. Representative faculty members and students will be invited to attend these conferences, and with them members of state departments of education and other administrators. While the conferences will seek to disseminate findings thus far made, they will be intended primarily to widen participation in the study and to produce suggestions based on local needs.

Reviews

LEE, J. MURRAY AND LEE, DORRIS MAY—*The Child and His Curriculum*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co. 1940. 652 pp. \$3.00.

The first favorable impression one gets from reading this volume is the fact that the child and the curriculum are both included. The child is treated from the following points of view: the goals, the growing organism, the developing personality, purposes and interests, and learning. The second part of the book deals with: the curriculum as a whole, units of work, sources of materials and experiences, social experiences, and the different school subjects classified as language experiences, number experiences, scientific experiences, healthful experiences, and creative experiences. Evaluating changes in the child is the last chapter.

Other characteristics which may be observed by a casual observation are the more than usual amount of materials collected from a wide variety of sources. Included are numerous tables and outlines having to do with such things as objectives, vocabulary, needs, goals, newer and older practices, units of work, teaching procedures, significant community resources, fears, activities for social studies, and many others. The bibliographies at the end of each chapter are very complete and critically selected.

The first chapter stresses the importance of emphasizing "neglected objectives," having reference to democratic values such as general welfare, civil liberties, the consent of the governed, and the like. Moreover, expressions in the book are largely favorable to the progressive education movement.

Certainly the great amount of new materials produced by progressive schools, which are referred to, indicate its total slant. However, the orientation is not entirely with reference to democratic values. It is conservatively or cautiously oriented. It is stated that "changes are made gradually, building upon what is in existence today." Also that "no educational 'ism' is being advocated." However, inasmuch as both the old and the new are presented, and certainly with emphasis on the new, the result should be an improvement over the practices of those who read it. The new and the old could be so incorporated, if based on a democratic direction of change, that the old would be incorporated into the new, the old itself thus becoming new. A few illustrations should clear up the meaning of these statements.

The chapter on number of experiences will illustrate the practical nature of the book, "Were the teacher to abandon the planned programs," so it is stated, "a chaotic condition would exist. A balance needs to be maintained between the planned programs as represented by textbooks in arithmetic and the experiences in utilizing number in classroom experiences." Again, "our textbooks are needed, and classroom experience is needed. They both make up a program. It is a problem of getting a balance."

Another illustration is from language experiences. The poor choice of spelling words is lamented. "The remedy is to use some of the same sources which spelling authors use to check the validity of the word as a

spelling word. One of the best lists is *A Combined Word List.*" A general curriculum of this type would be largely static and not progressively oriented. It is well for a teacher to know about those word lists. They might be of some use. They would certainly not be injurious. But to use them as suggested would certainly and unfortunately relieve the teacher of responsibility for thinking in terms of concrete situations which children are facing. But words should not be selected this way. The words a child needs to know how to spell are those demanded by the nature of his writing situation. If he needs an infrequent word to express a particular thing, he should learn to spell that word. It is entirely probable that more precise and effective expression could be had by making use of some infrequently used words, thereby making them more frequent.

Another illustration: "Thinking is creative only by definition." Also "It cannot be accepted that all learning is creative." It is stated, with reference to number combinations, that the first presentation is creative. After that, "practice" is needed to make the response automatic, and "this practice" is creative only by a "stretching of the point." But why can't the combinations be used in other purposeful situations frequently enough to place mathematics on a creative basis? It would destroy our present organization because more thinking would be involved in the early years, and making skills automatic would be distributed throughout the years, extending even into the high school. This certainly would make arithmetic a creative affair, and would not violate the nature of the human organism.

It is my feeling that a part of the basis for the criticism above is the fact that our patterns of thought and expression are out of harmony with experimentalism in philosophy and organicism psychology. Though the orientation is not quite clear, it is a very commendable contribution. I know of nothing which rivals it as a curriculum book in elementary education. It will be useful in teacher-training institutions and for teachers in service. I plan to make it a text for a correspondence course and use it as a reference book in my classes.

RALPH D. RUSSELL
University of Idaho

AXTELLE, GEORGE E. AND WATTENBERG, WILLIAM W., Editors — *Teachers for Democracy*. Fourth Yearbook, John Dewey Society. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company. 1940. 412 p. \$2.50.

An important contribution to the literature on the preparation of teachers is a volume produced by a selected group of "liberal" educators as the Fourth Yearbook for the John Dewey Society. It presents to the profession and to the lay public a statement on the role and the education of teachers by those whom, so far as the writer knows them, are to the left of center in their social and political points of view and who are also quite generally "Progressive" in their educational thinking. A carefully considered composite statement by capable leaders of such orientation is timely and appropriate for consideration and reaction by all educators and laymen alike and will be welcomed by all who want food for thought on very vital issues.

The plan of the book is a logical one, which presents first of all, in one of its best chapters, a critical reaction based on the present status of teacher education. It is followed by two others on "the task before us" and the abilities of the teachers needed in a democracy. These abilities are posited as being proficiency in: leadership and participation in group thinking; survey and analysis of the cultural and natural resources of the community; observing and interpreting the growth processes of the learner for guidance; participation with the learner in the derivation of learning policies, procedures, and units of instruction; the evaluation of educational programs and outcomes; and interpretation of the educational programs to the public. The book then devotes itself quite broadly, although in sections quite concretely, to the phases of the preparation of the teacher which apply to all types of positions and to all levels of education, emphasizing in particular: democratic control and administration, selection and guidance, the general education of the teacher, the professional subject matter, and the organization of it all into a program of pre-service and in-service education. Then follows one chapter on the preparation of the college teacher of prospective teachers. In the two concluding chapters occurs an analysis of Western culture with reference to the issues and conflicts which are favoring or threatening the democratic progress of Western civilization today. In the final chapter one of the editors quite directly posits the conclusion that teachers should unionize and affiliate with organized labor in order to fulfill their natural role in the culture as a whole.

In general most readers will differ on some details of the program, but yet agree with the basic themes of the yearbook: a greater realization by education of its functions to participate in the preservation and development of democracy as an ethical attempt in government and in social living, the importance of the role of the teacher in such a program, in consequence the importance of greater social insight and understanding of contemporary movements and forces by the teacher, the closer relationship of the schools with life, and the importance of a type of education that will result for teachers and pupils in greater ability to determine values to guide their decisions and action.

The book brings together many things said before. It is packed full of new ideas and suggestions. There is a lot of practical good sense in it. There are in the book also some sins of commission and omission. Since it emphasizes that function of education which aims to preserve and to develop social progress in the United States with use of the democratic idea, it does slide over and leave out of the perspective, although not ignoring it, that function of the school which strives to develop the resources of the individual for his own happiness and personal living. Some of the writers are also guilty, here and there, of overstatements and overenthusiasm for a cause not inhibited by evidence or critical analysis. Organismic psychology, it seems to me, is yet too readily accepted in total beyond its present scientific exploration because that type of psychology fits a philosophy most readily. This is wishful thinking. Extreme statements also occur, to which many may object. Too easily

in spots all of the past and most all of the present seems to be condemned with such broadly sweeping phrases, easily used to build up straw men to be knocked down, like "traditional," "outmoded," "static," "mechanistic," "authoritarian," "formal," "mere recall of subject matter," with negative connotations and too easily a mixture of tested and untested ideas are naively used to characterize favored ideas as "realistic," "democratic," "creative," "emergent," "dynamic," and the like, with positive connotation. In other words, there is in it something of the propagandist and reformer at times, and this in the long run is not at best good strategy. We are already confronted by a number of the ghosts of "Education Past." However, the book is important; it points out glaring deficiencies; it makes important proposals. No one can afford not to read it. It is now one of the essential books in teacher preparation.

W. E. PEIK
University of Minnesota

COMMISSION ON SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM — *Language in General Education*. A Report of the Committee on the Function of English in General Education. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company. 1940. 226 p. \$2.00.

This publication marks the emergence of a new phase of the teaching of English in America. It sets up "not a plan, but a point of view . . . that functionally language is basic to general education," and it outlines selected principles and illustrative practices for developing that conception within school curriculums. It is a positive contribution to the teaching of

English, not in isolation, but as a unified part of the total school curriculum, and will help in clarifying the issues for the major work of general curriculum reorganization now in progress.

Nine committee members are responsible for the report and readers who remember that they are listening to many voices will avoid confusion when they come upon contradictory or divergent viewpoints. The values of cooperative effort counterbalance the limitations. The influence of I. A. Richards is apparent throughout the book and it is in a sense an official handbook or guide to his work.

The committee has taken decisive positions on many issues important in the daily work of teachers and administrators. They recognize that "the basis of all language . . . must be rooted in experience," and that the English teacher can properly draw upon other fields to avoid "the merely verbal training" that may be caused by "isolating language teaching in English classes . . . from other subjects." Teachers of these other areas in turn should accept partial responsibility to cooperate in the formulation and application of the program of language teaching. Here the report sometimes approaches a core concept in which language study becomes a vital help to a class in all activities in which language is involved, and not a discipline imposed from without.

Formal grammar is "in deservedly bad repute," "distinctly on the defensive," because the aims are obscure and it "has degenerated into perfunctory routine . . . of applying the names of Latin construction to English." The precis (and paraphrasing) "in no

way comes to close grips with meanings."

The major force of the report follows the trends outlined above, . . . but traditional teachers of English may easily find much directly contradictory thinking to support them in their established ways. "Teaching language is teaching the *technique* of classifying, sorting, ordering, clarifying experiences—the *technique* of thinking straight." (Italics by H. D. R.) The illustrative suggestions of classroom practice are isolated fragments, many of them based on quotations from literature far beyond the reach of the secondary student.

Social dynamics are lacking in the emphasis on detail, and the conception of the important specific meanings arising out of the total framework of a unified program of action does not appear. This failure to see language as social action is exemplified in the committee's strictures on the activity program, and their questioning of the place for teaching items such as table manners in the English classroom. "For, after all," they conclude, "English is a language." But "language is a mode of social behavior," as the committee later recognized, and as one of the committee members, Lou La Brant, has elsewhere well said.

More serious is the committee's statement that *language disability* "lies entirely outside the province of this report." Surely someone has slipped in excluding from the program of *Language in General Education* all students "who have trouble with language." The applications are many and obvious.

Although there are some central weaknesses, this report justifies itself many times over in the analysis pre-

sented of such approaches to meaning as the context theory, "fictions," referential and emotive language, shifts, and metaphor. It is a forceful, brief guide to interpretation in teaching.

HOLLAND D. ROBERTS

Stanford University and Menlo
School and Junior College

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**DEPARTMENT OF SUPERVISORS AND
DIRECTORS OF INSTRUCTION —
*Newer Instructional Practices of
Promise*.** Twelfth Yearbook. Wash-
ington, D. C.: Department of Su-
pervisors and Directors of Instruc-
tion, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W.
1940. 379 p.

William H. Burton has written a pointed criticism of this new book in its opening paragraph when he says: "Legend has it that one of the rulers of ancient Egypt, tiring of the arduous labors involved in learning geometry, asked his teacher if there was not some easier way of learning this subject. After all, was he not a Pharaoh? Why should he have to struggle with difficulties of learning as did any common man? Were there not some teaching procedures which would smooth the path of Ptolemy I? The austere reply of that famous geometry teacher, Euclid, has become a byword. 'There is no royal road to geometry.' That was approximately 300 B.C." The reader intrigued by the title to hope he has found the "royal road" is doomed to disappointment. However, he will find a discussion of many old ideas which are gradually finding their way into educational practice.

Newer trends, democratic social living, mental hygiene, use of the local environment, integrative curriculum, industrial arts, dramatic play, science,

physical education, reading, libraries, the arts, arithmetic, materials of instruction, evaluation and supervision are the subjects treated in the separate chapters of the book. Each chapter is written by a different author or prepared under joint authorship. A selected bibliography on every subject treated is included at the close of the chapter.

Perhaps the above is the extent to which one may generalize about this yearbook with the assurance that his generalizations will stand a critical examination. However, the temptation is great to make one or two other general statements which may not be as well founded. In the treatment of every one of these different aspects of the school program one senses a move toward the democratizing of school procedures, a greater respect for the personality of the individual pupil, and an attempt to make the precepts of teaching bear fruit in the living of pupils. In most of the discussion the plea for what needs to be done is much more eloquent than the description of how it can be done.

Space does not permit a separate comment on each chapter. The reviewer, however, is impelled to run the

risk of showing favoritism by commenting on those chapters which satisfy his own prejudices. A person with a different bias would probably select other chapters for special comment. The chapters on dramatic play and science open new areas of possibility in the quest to narrow the gap between thought and action. Wouldn't it be curious if we should find the answer to the most vital problem of teaching citizenship in the science curriculum? No one attempting to use newer instructional practices should miss the chapter on evaluation. Supervisors will be interested in the summary description of newer techniques in supervision appropriate to newer instructional practices found in the final chapter of the book.

The book is punctuated with attractive photographs illustrating newer practices, particularly at the elementary school level. That California is rapidly adopting newer instructional practices quite generally is suggested by the fact that twelve of the nineteen authors are Californians.

FRED B. PAINTER
New York State Department
of Education



New Publications

BOOKS

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS—*Safety Education*. 18th Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: American Association of School Administrators, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1940. 344 p. \$2.00.

EDUCATIONAL POLICIES COMMISSION—*Education and Economic Well-Being in American Democracy*. Washington, D. C.: Educational Policies Commission, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1940. 227 p.

LINDQUIST, LILLY—*General Language. English and Its Foreign Relations*. New York: Henry Holt and Company. 1940. 397 p.

SANFORD, CHARLES W., HABBERTON, WILLIAM, AND McHARRY, LIESETTE J.—*Student Teaching*. Champaign, Illinois: Stipes Publishing Company. 1940. 164 p.

PAMPHLETS

AMIDON, BEULAH—*This Business of Relief*. New York: Council for Social Action, 289 Fourth Avenue. 1940. 40 p. Paper covers. 15 cents.

BEUST, NORA E.—*Five Hundred Books for Children*. United States Office of Education, Bulletin, 1939, Number 11. Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, 1940. 89 p. Paper covers. 15 cents.

COHEN, FELIX S.—*Immigration and National Welfare*. New York: League for Industrial Democracy, 112 East Nineteenth Street. 1940. 40 p. Paper covers. 15 cents.

DIVISION OF CULTURAL RELATIONS, DEPARTMENT OF STATE—*Conference on Inter-American Relations in the Field of Publications and Libraries*. November 29, 30, 1939. Digest of Proceedings and Addresses. Washington, D. C.: Division of Cultural Relations, Department of State. 1940. 55 p. Mimeographed.

FOSTER, LEBARON, R.—*How Easy Are "Easy Payments?" A Tract for Teachers*. Newton, Massachusetts: Pollak Foundation for Economic Research. 1940. 28 p. Paper covers. 10 cents.

NATIONAL SAFETY COUNCIL—*Safety Education in the Rural School*. Chicago, Illinois: National Safety Council, 20 North Wacker Drive. 1939. 55 p. Paper covers. 35 cents.

NEW JERSEY COUNCIL OF EDUCATION—*The Teaching of English Grammar in the Secondary Schools of New Jersey*. Ann Arbor, Michigan: Edward Brothers, Inc. 1940. 39 p. Paper covers. 30 cents.

OSSWEGO, NEW YORK, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL—*Elementary School Textbooks*. Bulletin II. Oswego, New York: Curriculum Lab-

oratory, State Normal School. 1940. 31 p. Mimeographed.

REYNOLDS, RUSSELL—*Annotated List of Books from 10c to \$1.00*. New York: Russell Reynolds, 536 West 114th Street. 1940. 123 p. Mimeographed. 25 cents.

RUCH, GILES M. AND SEGEL, DAVID—*Minimum Essentials of the Individual Inventory in Guidance*. Vocational Division Bulletin No. 202. Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1940. 83 p. Paper covers. 15 cents.

SOCIETY FOR CURRICULUM STUDY—*Building America, Volume 5, Number 6. Railroads*. Milwaukee, Wisconsin: E. M. Hale and Company, 5193 Plankinton Arcade. March, 1940. 30 p. Paper covers. 30 cents.

WELLS HIGH SCHOOL—*Comprehensive Examination*. Chicago, Illinois: Wells High School. 1940. 16 p. Mimeographed. 25 cents.

WEST, SEYMOUR—*Visual Aids for Pupil Adventure in the Realm of Geography*. Montclair, New Jersey: State Teachers College. 1940. 20 p. Mimeographed. 50 cents.

WHITELOW, JOHN B.—*School-Community Organization*. Brockport, New York: The Author, 4 South Avenue. 1940. 77 p. Mimeographed.

WOOD, EDITH ELMER AND OGG, ELIZABETH—*The Homes the Public Builds*. Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 41. New York: Silver Burdett Company. 1940. 32 p. Paper covers. 10 cents.

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BRUMLEY, OSCAR V. AND CHARTERS, W. W.—*A Curriculum in Veterinary Medicine*. Columbus, Ohio: Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University. 1939. 78 p. Paper covers. \$1.75.

FLORIDA, UNIVERSITY OF, PUBLICATIONS—Gainesville, Florida: Bureau of Educational Research, University of Florida. Mimeographed.

Cooperative Study and Work of Six Laboratory Schools, 1938-39. Bulletin No. 2. 1940. 43 p.

Evangeline. By Margaret W. Boutelle and Cleva Carson. Bulletin No. 13. 1939. 26 p.

Vocational Agriculture in the P. K. Yonge Laboratory School and Its Values. By M. B. Jordan. Bulletin No. 14. 1939. 9 p.

Small Classes in Florida High Schools. By A. R. Mead, Kenneth Kidd, and Hal G. Lewis. Bulletin No. 15. 1939. 13 p.

LAWSON, F. MELVYN—*Course of Study Guide*

Book. Sacramento, California: Senior High School. 1939. 16 p. Paper covers.

MAYVILLE, NORTH DAKOTA, STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE—*Experimenting with Soils in the Elementary Grades.* Mayville, North Dakota: State Teachers College. 1940. 8 p. Paper covers.

PEASE, JAMES E. AND TERRY, WALTON C.—*Student's Guide for the General Problems Course.* North Muskegon, Michigan: Public Schools. 1940. 18 p. Mimeographed.

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Course of Study in Character for the Third Year. 165 p.

Course of Study in Character for the Fourth Year. 167 p.

Suggestions for Teaching Character in the Fourth Year. 46 p.

TEXAS, UNIVERSITY OF—*Proceedings of the Curriculum Conference and Study Group.* June 6-7, 1939. Austin, Texas: University Cooperative, 2246 Guadalupe. 1940. 277 p. Mimeographed. \$1.00.

YOUNGSTOWN PUBLIC SCHOOL PUBLICATIONS—Youngstown, Ohio: Public Schools. 1940. Mimeographed.

A Tentative Course of Study in Arithmetic. 69 p.

A Tentative Course of Study in English. 85 p.

A Tentative Course of Study in English, Grades 7-12. 37 p.

A Tentative Course of Study in Health. 52 p.

A Tentative Course of Study in Safety. 26 p.

A Tentative Course of Study in Science. 46 p.

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ARMITAGE, THERESA, DYKEMA, PETER W., AND PITCHER, GLADYS—*A Singing School—Our Songs.* With accompaniments. Boston, Massachusetts: C. C. Birchard and Company. 1940. 172 p. Paper covers. Teacher's Manual to accompany. 60 p.

BIXLER, H. H. AND SIMMONS, E. P.—*The New Standard High School Spelling Scale.*

Atlanta, Georgia: Turner E. Smith and Company. 1940. 64 p.

BIXLER, H. H. AND STEADMAN, J. M.—*Spelling in Everyday Life.* Atlanta, Georgia: Turner E. Smith and Company. 1940. Book I, 155 p.; Book II, 398 p.

EDUCATIONAL POLICIES COMMISSION—*On Our Way.* An Educational Review Adapted from The Purposes of Education in American Democracy. Washington, D. C.: Educational Policies Commission, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1940. 58 p. Paper covers. Single copies, free; additional copies, 10 cents each. Music to accompany.

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MYERS, GEORGE E., LITTLE, GLADYS M., AND ROBINSON, SARAH A.—*Planning Your Future.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company. Revised, 1940. 549 p. \$1.64.

SHIELDS, H. G. AND WILSON, W. HARMON—*Consumer Economic Problems.* Cincinnati, Ohio: South-Western Publishing Company. 1940. 767 p. \$1.41. Workbook to accompany: *Consumer Projects*, 174 p. Paper covers.

YOUNG, JEREMIAH S., BARTON, EDWIN M., AND JOHNSTON, LYSLE E.—*Citizens at Work.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company. 1940. 402 p. \$1.32.

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